4884

A NEW
GEOGRAPHICAL, COMMERCIAL, AND HISTORICAL
GRAMMAR;
AND
PRESENT STATE
OF THE SEVERAL
EMPIRES AND KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING

I. The distances, figures, and revolutions of the celestial bodies, as demonstrated by Sir Isaac Newton, and observed by the latest Astronomers.
II. A description of the earth, considered as one of the revolving bodies in the general system; with several definitions and problems necessary for understanding the science of Geography.
III. An account of the great divisions of the surface of the globe into continents, islands, oceans, seas, &c.
IV. An accurate and particular description of all the empires, kingdoms, and states in the world, as situated with regard to one another.
V. The climate and soil, with its productions, whether vegetable or mineral; the natural curiosities; a particular description of the sea-coasts, including all the bays, capes, promontories, and adjacent rocks; with an account of the most remarkable lakes and rivers.
VI. An account of the animals, whether birds, beasts, fishes, or insects, found in each country.
VII. Observations on the various parts of the globe in which history makes mention of any remarkable change having naturally taken place.
VIII. An history of all nations from their origin; laws, government, religion, manners, and customs; distinctions of rank, revenues, taxes, strength by sea and land.
IX. The genius and external appearance of the people.
X. An account of their learning, arts, language, manufactures, and commerce.
XI. The chief cities, artificial curiosities, antiquities, &c.

TO WHICH IS ADDED,

I. A Geographical Index, with the names of Places, alphabetically arranged. II. A Table of the Coins of all the different Nations, with their value in Sterling money. III. A Chronological Table of remarkable Events, from the earliest accounts to the present time.

The whole executed on a plan similar to that of W. GUTHRIE, Esq;

BY A SOCIETY IN EDINBURGH.

The Astronomical part collected from the works of JAMES FERGUSON, F. R. S. Enriched with the late discoveries of DR. HERSCHEL, and other eminent Astronomers.

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An elegant set of MAPS, engraved on purpose, more numerous, accurate, and exhibiting more fully the new Geographical Discoveries than those to be met with in any former publication.

VOL. II.

EDINBURGH:
Printed for ALEXANDER KINCAID, and sold by all the BOOKSELLERS in Town and Country.
MDCCXC.

34

MVSEVM
BRITAN
NICVM

TO

HIS GRACE

HENRY SCOT, DUKE OF BUCCLEUGH, EARL OF DALKEITH AND DONCASTER,

IN

TESTIMONY OF THAT ESTEEM WHICH IS DUE TO A CHARACTER SO TRULY RESPECTABLE,

EXEMPLIFIED,

NOT ONLY BY THOSE PATRIOTIC EXERTIONS IN FAVOUR OF HIS COUNTRY,

AT

A PERIOD WHEN HER FOES WERE AT ONCE *NUMEROUS, UNITED,* AND *POWERFUL,*

BUT

ILLUSTRATED ALSO IN MANY ACTS OF PRIVATE AS WELL AS PUBLIC BENEFICENCE,

TENDING,

ON THE ONE HAND, TO SOOTHE DISTRESSED INDIGENCE,

AND,

ON THE OTHER, TO ACCELERATE THE PROGRESS

OF THE

ARTS, TRADE, and MANUFACTURES;

TO A PERSONAGE THUS EMINENTLY DISTINGUISHED FOR HIS HIGH RANK AND HIS VIRTUES,

THIS

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND COMMERCIAL GRAMMAR,

IS MOST RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED,

BY

His GRACE's *most obedient*

And very humble servant,

ALEXANDER KINCAID.

PREFACE.

IN the following treatiſe the deſign of the editor has been to preſent his readers with a ſyſtem of geographical knowledge as complete as the ſize of the book and the ſtate of the ſcience would allow. In the execution of this plan ſeveral difficulties occurred, chiefly owing to the numerous diſcoveries made of late years by navigators of different nations, which could ſcarcely be treated of without ſwelling the work to an inconvenient ſize, and partly alſo to the many corrections required in former works of this kind, which were to be uſed as materials, and of which the inaccuracy has often been a ſubject of complaint. It was likewiſe a matter of no ſmall difficulty to arrange and adjuſt the various departments of the work properly to one another, in ſuch a manner that each might be ſufficiently explicit, without occupying too large a part of the book. This was particularly neceſſary in the hiſtorical departments, which in former works of this kind had the appearance of detached and mutilated ſcraps of hiſtory, rather than any regular abridgement. To remedy this capital defect, the utmoſt care has been taken not only in conſulting the beſt hiſtories, both ancient and modern, but to give a regular detail of the moſt intereſting events relative to every empire or kingdom, without expatiating on frivolous tranſactions, or the characters of particular perſons, as is too often the caſe with thoſe who affect elegance, where they ought rather to ſtudy how to convey inſtruction. The editor is ſenſible, that by thus giving a plain narrative of facts, he may be expoſed to the cenſures of thoſe who wiſh to have hiſtorical facts *embelliſhed* by the conjectures and flouriſhes of the hiſtorian himſelf: but he is perſuaded, that this is a ſpecies of writing of which no judicious perſon will ever approve. Hiſtory itſelf is a chain of facts; and were theſe to be rigidly adhered to, all hiſtorians would ſpeak the ſame language. Inſtead of this, however, we find ſome very eminent modern hiſtorians gloſſing over, nay, relating with ſeeming approbation the moſt infamous tranſactions, and celebrating the names of perſonages, remarkable only for their cruelty, treachery, and every kind of vice. In the preſent work a contrary method has been followed; and vice, wherever the hiſtorian had occaſion to make a remark, has been ſtigmatiſed as ſuch without the leaſt reſerve, or attempt at colouring, however eminent the perſon might be in whom it appeared.

PREFACE.

As it hath thus been found neceſſary to enlarge the hiſtorical part of the work, ſo it has been found equally neceſſary to abridge ſome others. There is, for inſtance, ſuch a ſimilarity of air, climate, ſoil, &c. in many different countries of the world, that it has been thought proper, particularly in North and South America, to claſs a number of them together; which, ſo far from being a diſadvantage, muſt be accounted a very great improvement; as thereby the reader has it in his power to take a more comprehenſive view of theſe countries, than when they are ſeparately treated of; not to mention, that under theſe detached articles there is frequently ſuch a ſameneſs, not only in the matter, but alſo in the expreſſion, as muſt be very diſguſting to any intelligent perſon.

In the geographical part, the editor has likewiſe availed himſelf of a correſpondence with ſeveral gentlemen who have viſited diſtant countries, and whoſe original communications, it is hoped, will be accounted a valuable addition to the work. In all caſes, the moſt ſcrupulous attention has been paid to accuracy in pointing out the proper ſituations of different places as to longitude and latitude; in which, though in ſome meaſure it may be ſaid that the very eſſence of geography conſiſts, a ſcandalous deficiency may be obſerved in the moſt approved modern publications.

Ancient geography, though uſually omitted in works of this kind, is eagerly ſought after by thoſe in early life, who generally have the claſſic authors in their hands. To accommodate the work therefore as much as poſſible to readers of all denominations, the geography of the ancients hath not been neglected; and ſeveral maps, from the beſt authorities, are given, by which the extent of the celebrated empires of antiquity, as well as the world in general as known before the revival of learning in the 16th century, are at once exhibited.

To make this work ſtill more complete, the maps it contains are not only much more numerous, but conſtructed with greater accuracy than is uſual in publications of this kind; in accompliſhing which the editor has certainly ſpared no expence, though he hath not on that account enhanced the price of the book. On the whole, he thinks himſelf intitled to ſay, that throughout the work he has on all occaſions ſtudied to convey inſtruction, and to render it more uſeful, as well as entertaining, than any other of the kind that hath yet appeared. How far he has ſucceeded in his attempt, the public will determine. In an *original* work of ſuch extent, there is no doubt that many errors may be ſuppoſed to eſcape. Such of theſe as have been obſerved are marked in the table of Errata; others which have not been noticed, it is hoped the indulgent reader will mark as they occur in the courſe of his reading.

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The SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES, ſometimes called the UNITED STATES, or STATES of HOLLAND.

THESE are Holland, Overyſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; the two laſt accounted only one province, on account of their being under one ſovereignty.

Situation, Extent, and Diviſion. Theſe provinces lie between the latitudes of 51° and 54° north, and between 2° and 5° of eaſt longitude, at the diſtance of near 100 miles from the coaſt of England, the Engliſh Channel being interpoſed between the two countries. In length they extend about 150 miles, and in breadth pretty much the ſame. The following is the moſt ſatisfactory account we have of their diviſions.

	Countries Name. United Provinces.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns.
Calviniſts.	Overyſſel	1,910	67	59	Deventer
	Holland	1,890	85	53	AMSTERDAM
	Gelderland	987	59	42	Numeguen
	Frieſland	820	47	35	Lauwarden
	Zutphen	648	38	34	Zutphen
	Groningen	546	45	38	Groningen
	Utrecht	458	44	23	Utrecht
	Zealand	304	28	25	Middleburg
	Texel & other iſlands	114			
	Total—	7,677			

Climate, Soil, &c. The ſituation of theſe provinces particularly ſubjects them to damp and unwholeſome air; for they lie exceſſively low, having been moſtly gained from the ſea by the induſtry of the inhabitants, and are defended from its inundations by vaſt dykes erected, and kept up, at great expence. They are alſo interſected by the mouths of many great rivers, from which vaſt quantities of vapour are naturally raiſed by the heat of the ſun. Theſe damps, however, are removed by the ſevere froſts in winter, when the eaſt wind ſets in with ſuch keenneſs as to freeze up their harbours. The general moiſture of the air is

evident from the great propenſity of metals to ruſt, on which account the Dutch are obliged to ſcour and clean their kitchen utenſils in a manner continually, and thus have obtained the character of being the moſt cleanly people in the world. The ſoil is naturally marſhy and barren; but having been drained by innumerable canals, it is now every where rendered capable of producing either corn or paſturage: all the induſtry of the inhabitants, however, is not capable of removing entirely the natural inconveniences of the country. The canals indeed in many places ſerve as high roads, and render travelling, or the conveyance of goods from one place to another, very eaſy and ſafe; but in the ſummer time their waters become putrid, and emit offenſive and unwholeſome vapours. The total want of eminences of any magnitude, of plantations, or ſtreams of running water, alſo renders the appearance of the country diſagreeable to ſtrangers.

Rivers and Harbours. The rivers which paſs through the United States, notwithſtanding the inconveniencies they occaſion by reaſon of the damp and unwholeſome vapours ariſing from them, are yet of the utmoſt importance to the Hollanders, on account of the facility with which goods may by their means be conveyed from every part of the country to the ocean. The principal are the Rhine, the Maeſe, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are a number of ſmall rivers which join theſe, as well as an innumerable multitude of canals; but the harbours in this country are by no means good. That of Amſterdam indeed is very large and fine; but has a bar at its mouth, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened. Thoſe of Helvoetſluys, Fluſhing, and Rotterdam are the beſt.

Vegetables Animals, and Minerals. Though, by the exceſſive induſtry of the inhabitants, theſe provinces have been rendered fit for producing corn in many places, yet the produce is never equal to the conſumpt of the country. The ſoil, however, every where produces excellent paſture, in conſequence of which they fatten a vaſt number of German and Daniſh cattle, and make great quantities of cheeſe and butter, eſteemed the beſt in Europe. Their horned cattle are alſo of a larger ſize than thoſe of other countries, as well as their horſes, and the wool of their ſheep is much eſteemed. Their country produces great quantities of madder, which has proved a valuable article of commerce, and is greatly valued by dyers. They have alſo ſome fruit and tobacco, but they have no timber except what they import. They are ſaid to have ſome wild beaſts, particularly bears and wolves; and ſtorks build and hatch in their chimneys, but being birds of paſſage, they leave the country in Autumn, and return in the Spring. The ſea-fiſh are larger than ours, which has been ſuppoſed owing to their fiſhing in deeper water; but the river fiſh are much the ſame. The iſlands of the Texel have many oyſter beds, which produce fine and well taſted oyſters. The Dutch have been famous for their pickled herrings, though none of theſe fiſh viſit their coaſts, but they ſupply themſelves abundantly from the Britiſh ſeas. The common fuel of the country is turf; what pit-coal they uſe is moſtly imported from Britain: they have ſome iron, but are obliged to import a great many of the neceſſaries of life; notwithſtanding which inconvenience, their induſtry has afforded them as many of theſe neceſſaries, and even conveniencies, and on as eaſy terms as are be met with in any country in Europe.

Inhabitants,

Inhabitants, Manners, and Cuſtoms. At the beginning of the preſent century, M. de Wit computed the number of inhabitants in the United Provinces at about two millions and an half; but Mr Templeman eſtimates them only at two millions. Even this laſt is a vaſt number, conſidering the ſmall extent of the country; ſo that the United Provinces are ſuppoſed to be better peopled than any other part of the world. The province of Holland alone, however, is ſuppoſed to contain as many inhabitants as all the other ſix. In their own country the Dutch are generally quiet and inoffenſive, but have been known to exerciſe the moſt ſhocking cruelties on ſuch as were in their power, when they thought themſelves in no danger of a diſcovery. Their general character indeed is that of being avaricious, to which perhaps we may ſuppoſe them naturally inclined, by reaſon of the very laborious life to which they are perpetually condemned This ariſes from the inconveniencies to which their country is liable. The mere preſervation of their lives from the fury of the ocean, by means of mounds and dykes, is a very difficult taſk. The ſame is evidently the caſe with the country itſelf. It could not be drained originally without immenſe labour; and the keeping in repair ſuch a vaſt number of canals muſt undoubtedly employ a number of hands continually. Their food, which is principally collected from the ſea, cannot be obtained without exceſſive toil, and they are accuſtomed to ſell their beſt fiſhes, as well as their butter and cheeſe, to other nations for the ſake of gain, contenting themſelves with what may be called the offals of the produce of their own induſtry. The dampneſs of their climate and ſoil naturally ſink their ſpirits, and incline them to ſupport themſelves by cordials; whence the whole nation, women, as well as men, are charged with tippling and drinking. In their natural diſpoſitions they are ſlow and phlegmatic, but very paſſionate when heated with liquor; and a Dutchman of low rank will be guilty of every ſpecies of brutality when drunk. In general, however, the paſſions of the Dutch run lower than thoſe of moſt other nations. They regard with much coolneſs every thing that does not immediately concern their own intereſts; and even their attention to the independency and government of their country is owing to the ſame principle of ſelf-intereſt; for they have never been known to make any change in their conſtitution till they were abſolutely on the brink of ruin. In the management of money matters they are more expert than any people in the world; being equally ſkilled in the acquiſition of wealth, and the methods of preſerving it. Formerly it was an univerſal rule among them, that every man ſhould ſpend leſs than his income; and a report of any perſon's current expence equalling his revenue would have entailed diſgrace upon him as being a ſpendthrift or profligate. Hence no country in the world can produce a proportionable number of people who enjoy a comfortable ſufficiency, or is there any nation where failures in trade happen more ſeldom; though, it muſt be owned, that this exact œconomy is now conſiderably relaxed, and the luxuries and diſſipation of other nations are beginning to prevail among them. To this frugality and perſeverance they are indebted for thoſe aſtoniſhing works requiſite for draining their country, and by which they have the waters of the ocean and rivers ſo much at their command, that they can lay their country under water in ſuch a manner, that their cities will become inacceſſible in a few hours. From the ſame ſource alſo may we derive the ſurpriſing increaſe of their military and marine power, by which they were ena-

bled to contend with that powerful monarch Louis XIV. as well as with England in the time of Charles II. In their diverſions they reſemble the Britiſh, but ſkating ſeems to be their principal amuſement. In this they excel all people in the world, and for this the country is alſo better fitted than any other, on account of the vaſt number of canals with which it is interſected. Both men and women practiſe this diverſion; and their velocity on the ice is little ſhort of that of the flight of a bird.

Dreſs. In former times the dreſs of the Hollanders was very groteſque; the men wore large breeches, and the women odd kinds of jerkins, plain mobbs, and ſhort petticoats, which, added to the natural clumſineſs of their perſons, made them objects of ridicule to other nations. Theſe dreſſes, however, now prevail generally only among the lower claſſes, eſpecially the ſailors; thoſe of a ſuperior rank imitating the Britiſh and French in their apparel.

Religion. The Hollanders generally profeſs the Calviniſtic and Preſbyterian tenets, which are eſtabliſhed throughout the country. None but Preſbyterians are admitted to any civil office, tho' they may be to a military one; but there is a general toleration of all religious ſects, not excepting the Papiſts and Jews. The benefits of toleration are nowhere more conſpicuous; for as every one is allowed to worſhip God in his own way, thoſe of the moſt oppoſite opinions live together in perfect harmony and peace. In Holland, therefore, as no hopes of preferment can be entertained from any religious ſentiments whatever, the differences of opinion in this reſpect make none in affection; but all give equal application to the arts of peace, and have equal freedom of ſpeculation upon any ſubject whatever.

Language. Throughout theſe provinces the language generally ſpoken is a corrupted dialect of the German, called the Low Dutch; but Engliſh and French is ſpoken by the people of faſhion.

Learning and Learned Men. Notwithſtanding the general character the Dutch have of being dull and phlegmatic, their country has produced many very eminent men in various departments. The invention of printing is diſputed betwixt them and the Germans; and the beſt editions of the claſſics have come from the Dutch preſſes. The names of Eraſmus, Grotius, Boerhaave, &c. will for ever be eſteemed; but controverſial divinity is what their authors have principally excelled in; and ſo much did this formerly inſinuate itſelf into the ſtate, that before the univerſal toleration above mentioned took place, the government had almoſt been ruined by religious diſputes. Burman and Grævius are noted for their commentaries upon the claſſics; and their Latin poems and epigrams are very numerous. There is only one Dutch poet, however, whoſe works are held in any eſtimation. His name is Van Haaren, and he lived in 1747. The ſubject of his poems is *Liberty*.

Univerſities. Of theſe there are five, viz. Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Francker. Leyden and Utrecht are the moſt remarkable of theſe. The former was founded in 1575. Its medical ſchool was brought into a high degree of reputation, and it ſtill continues to have a conſiderable character. The library is very valuable, having beſides a large collection of books, upwards of 2000 oriental manuſcripts. Here is alſo a large ſphere, in which the motions of the heavenly bodies, according to the Copernican Syſtem are repreſented; the

the machine being kept in motion by clock-work. The univerſity of Utrecht was eſtabliſhed in the year 1636; but has not the ſame privileges with the others, being entirely in ſubjection to the magiſtrates. It has a fine phyſic-garden, and a beautiful mall for the recreation of the ſtudents. This conſiſts of ſeven ſtraight walks; but that in the middle is properly called the mall. The walks are regularly planted with limes, and 2000 paces in length. The ſtudents at theſe and the other univerſities in this country are allowed to live as they pleaſe, and generally adopt the frugal manners of the country, which for the moſt part produces a conſiderable advance in learning, as they have none of thoſe avocations which riot and diſſipation produce. No oaths nor religious teſts are impoſed; ſo that the children of Roman Catholics, or even Jews, are admitted here with the ſame freedom as Proteſtants.

Curioſities. In the univerſity of Leyden is the effigies of a Ruſſian peaſant who ſwallowed a knife ten inches long, and is ſaid to have lived eight years after it was cut out of his ſtomach. The way in which he happened to ſwallow this was by putting the handle of it down his throat, in order to produce vomiting; but in the retching thus excited, he happened to let go the blade, on which the whole handle ſlipt down into his ſtomach, part of the blade remaining in the gullet. An inciſion was made upon the handle, which was diſtinctly felt, and no very remarkable ſymptoms took place. Here are alſo a ſhirt made out of the entrails of a man; two Egyptian mummies, ſuppoſed to be thoſe of two princes of great antiquity; all the muſcles and tendons of the human body, curiouſly ſet up by profeſſor Stalpert Vander Weil. Near Maeſtricht is a remarkable quarry, worked under a hill, in ſuch a manner as to form a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars 20 feet high. Among the curioſities of the country alſo we may rank the dykes by which the ſea is prevented from overflowing the country; ſome parts of which are ſaid to be 17 ells (34 feet) in thickneſs; though even theſe enormous mounds are ſcarce ſufficient to reſiſt the fury of the ocean at all times.

Chief Cities, &c. Amſterdam, the capital of the United Provinces, is ſuppoſed to be next to London, the greateſt commercial city in the world, and to contain upwards of 240,000 inhabitants. It is wholly built upon piles, on account of its marſhy ſituation; but for the grandeur of its public works, and conveniency for commerce, it is ſcarce inferior to any city in the world. The Stadthouſe ſtands upon 13,659 piles, and is looked upon as the beſt building of that kind in the world. Amſterdam is alſo remarkable for the beauty and regularity of its canals, which have trees planted along their borders; and every one is ſtruck with admiration at the cleanneſs and neatneſs of the houſes within doors; but it labours under two capital diſadvantages, viz. the want of wholeſome water, and of good air, both which ariſe from its ſituation. So deſtitute is it of water, that the inhabitants are obliged to collect what drops from the clouds in reſervoirs. Rotterdam is alſo remarkable for its commerce and the riches of the inhabitants, who are computed at between 50 and 60,000. The Hague, though a village, is thought to have 40,000 inhabitants. It has no trade, but is ſupported by being the ſeat of government, and the great concourſe of ſtrangers, who come thither for pleaſure. At Saardam, Peter the Great of Ruſſia ſerved an apprenticeſhip to ſhip building, and laboured as a common mechanic. It is a wealthy

place,

place, and has a conſiderable ſhare of commerce. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities; the latter being remarkable for the treaty in 1713, which put an end to the war in queen Anne's time.

Inland Navigation. A vaſt internal commerce is carried on throughout this country by means of the innumerable multitude of canals which are every where to be met with. The general method of paſſing from one town to another is by water. The paſſengers embark in a veſſel called a *Treckſcuit*, which is no other than a kind of covered boat divided into two apartments, where they may eat, drink, ſmoke, or otherwiſe amuſe themſelves as they think fit. The treckſcuit is drawn by horſes, which proceed at a ſlow and uniform trot, ſo that they reach the place of their deſtination almoſt at the appointed moment, and at very little expence. As the canals communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, all the various commodities of the world are thus conveyed at a trifling expence into Germany, the Belgic provinces, and French Netherlands. In the neighbourhood of the capital, the canals are lined for miles together with elegant country houſes, ſeated in the midſt of gardens and pleaſure grounds, adorned to the very edge of the water with ſtatues, temples, &c. Here many of the rich citizens of Amſterdam retire from buſineſs, and amuſe themſelves with viewing the paſſengers on the canals, to whom they are complaiſant and polite.

Commerce and Manufactures. In both theſe the Dutch are not to be equalled by any nation in Europe, Britain only excepted; and even over this country they have the advantage in ſome reſpects. Their manufactures are greatly aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of the country, the cheapneſs of labour, and the water carriage, which laſt particularly gives them the advantage over all other nations. Their manufactures of delft ware, and other kinds of pottery, oil, ſtarch, paper, &c. have long been renowned, as well as thoſe of ſilk, thread, linen, hemp, leather, bleached wax, &c. Nor is their foreign commerce leſs remarkable than that carried on within the country. Their Eaſt India Company have, for more than 100 years, monopoliſed the fine ſpices of the Indies, where they have ſome very important ſettlements. Their capital in theſe parts is Batavia, which, for the extent of its commerce, the wealth of the inhabitants, and the magnificence of the place, is ſaid to exceed all the cities of Aſia. The viceroy appears with a ſplendor ſuperior to that of the Stadtholder; and ſome of the people ſcarce own any dependence on the mother country. The Cape of Good Hope is the grand rendezvous of the ſhipping not only of Holland, but of all other nations, bound either to or from the Eaſt Indies. The herring and whale fiſheries of the Dutch have long been celebrated; but it is now doubtful whether theſe are in the ſame flouriſhing ſtate as formerly; their general induſtry being undoubtedly damped by the riches and luxury of individuals.

Public Trading Companies. Theſe are the Eaſt and Weſt India Companies. The former was incorporated in the year 1602, and for ſome time continued to flouriſh exceedingly. Till the year 1660, the proprietors continued to divide 40, and ſometimes 60 *per cent;* and on an average of 124 years, have divided ſomewhat more than 24 *per cent.* In 1760, they divided 15 *per cent.* The profits of the Weſt India Company have been much ſmaller. It was incorporated in 1621, and in 1760 divided no more than two and an half *per cent.* The bank of Amſterdam is ſuppoſed by Sir William Temple to contain the greateſt treaſure either real or imaginary in the world. The money kept here is computed

at

at 30 or 36 millions ſterling; and what is extraordinary, the money in this bank is worth ſomewhat more in common payments than current caſh, which in ſome meaſure may recompenſe the proprietors for their want of intereſt from the bank itſelf.

Conſtitution and Government. The government of Holland is far from being ſuch as allows any great ſhare of liberty. Each province has a government independent of the others, which conſiſts of a certain aſſembly, called the *States* of that province. A number of deputies from theſe form the *States General*, which conſtitute the ſupreme council of the nation; but the bulk of the people have no ſhare in either of theſe governments, not even in the choice of the deputies; and very few of them dare ſpeak their ſentiments freely upon political ſubjects. Though ſeveral of the provinces ſend two or more delegates to the States General, yet theſe have no more than one vote in the council; and before any reſolution can be paſſed into a law, it muſt be approved not only by every province, but by every city in that province; though in caſes of danger, theſe tedious formalities are ſet aſide. Every reſolution of the ſtates of a particular province muſt be carried unanimouſly.

Beſides the *States General*, there is another aſſembly, called the *Council of State*, formed likewiſe of deputies from the various provinces. It conſiſts only of twelve members, of whom Gelderland, Zealand, and Utrecht ſend two; Frieſland, Overyſſel, and Groningen one; and Holland three. The buſineſs of this council is to make eſtimates, and to prepare other matters to be laid before the States General. The chamber of accompts is likewiſe formed of provincial deputies, and takes cognizance of the public accompts. The buſineſs of the admiralty board is carried on by five colleges in the provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. Amſterdam takes the lead in all public deliberations. It is governed by a ſenate, conſiſting of 36 members choſen for life, every vacancy among them being filled up by the ſurvivors. The deputies who repreſent the province of Holland are alſo choſen by this ſenate; ſo that, in the province juſt mentioned, the people have nothing to do in chooſing their repreſentatives.

The whole nation is under the direction of a Stadtholder; an office which ſeems a contradiction to the reſt of the conſtitution. He has the power of changing the deputies, magiſtrates and officers throughout the whole extent of the provinces; by which means he can direct the proceedings of the States General themſelves, though he has no vote in that aſſembly; and thus, in fact, he has the power and influence of a king. Beſides the revenues he derives from his Stadtholderſhip, he has ſeveral principalities of his own, which add conſiderably to his importance.

Juſtice is ſaid to be diſtributed with the greateſt impartiality in this country.

Revenues. Theſe ariſe from a land-tax, poll tax, and hearth money, beſides an almoſt general exciſe, which throughout the provinces is ſo heavy, that it has been ſaid they muſt pay a tax for every thing except the air they breathe; but in recompence for this, the duties on goods and merchandiſe are very low. The following computation has been made of the rate at which each province contributes towards the public expence:

Of

Of every million of ducats the Province of Holland contributes	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friesland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groningen	75,000
Gelderland	70,000
Overyssel	50,000

The city of Amsterdam alone pays 320,000 ducats out of the 420,000 furnished by the whole province. The finances of the country are in a most excellent situation, and they lend considerable sums to almost all the powers of Europe.

Military Force by Sea and Land. In former times the marine power of the Dutch was very formidable, and they were accustomed to fit out large fleets; but of late their navy has been much neglected; and, in the late war with England, they were scarce able to fit out as many ships of war as could oppose a single British squadron. Since that time, however, they have applied themselves to the restoration of their marine; and it is very probable that it will not be allowed any more to fall into such disrepair. Their land army generally consists of 40,000 men in time of peace; great numbers of whom are Scots and Swiss; and, in time of war, they hire many mercenaries from Germany. Twenty-five thousand of these troops are commonly kept in garrisons. The Stadtholder is commander in chief of the army, and under him is an officer stiled the field marshal general.

Orders of Knighthood. Of these there is only one in Holland, viz. those of the Teutonic order, which is one of the most ancient in Europe. It is now divided into two branches, one for Papists, the other for Protestants. The latter have a house at Utrecht where they transact business. The ensign of the order is a cross pattie, enamelled white, surmounted with another black; above the cross is a ball twisted white and black. It is pendent to a broad black watered ribband, which is worn about the neck. A cross of the same kind is embroidered on the left breast of the upper garment of each knight. When any of the nobles of Holland propose a son to be a knight, they must enter his name in the register, and pay a large sum of money for the use of the poor maintained by the order. On this the candidate succeeds him in course, but is obliged to bring with him a proof of his nobility for four generations, both on the father and mother's side.

Arms. These are a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlass, and with the other a bundle of seven arrows close bound together, alluding to the seven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *concordia res parvæ crescunt.*

History. See French Netherlands.

BELGIC UNITED STATES.

THESE comprehend all that was formerly known by the name of *Austrian Netherlands;* and which, after being long subject to the tyranny of the kings of Spain and emperors of Germany, have lately, by a most unexpected and vigorous exertion of the people, obtained their

THE BELGIC PROVINCES With the Roads from the latest AUTHORITIES

British Miles 69½ to a Deg.

NORTH SEA

GELDERS

DUTCH

DUTCHY

PRUSSIAN

TO THE BALTICK

TO AUSTRIA

FRANCE

FLANDERS

ARTOIS

PICARDY

CHAMPAGNE

HAINAULT

NAMAROIS

LUXEMBURG

Rotterdam
Gorcum
Nimmegen
Zutphen
Arnhem
Cleves
Wesel
Rees
Emmerick
Boeckholt
Bercken
Scherpenbeck
Crevelt
Meurs
Kempen
Rhine
Crainenburg
Dusseldorp
Meer
Nuys
Elzen
Juliers
Berchem
Duren
Kerpen
Zulch
Bullingen
Statkyll
Schonreck
Dalenzart
Welschbillich
Trevers
Saarbruck
Saarburg
Sarloun
Breda
Bergen op Zoom
Hoogstraten
Antwerp
Rupelmonde
Herentals
Liere
Mechelen
Aerschot
Diest
Hasselt
Stockem
Maseyck
Ruremonde
Weirdt
Hoorn
Peer
Stefens
Erckelens
Sichem
Helem
Henk
Reken
Maestricht
Valkenburg
Wyck
Roldne
Aix la Chapelle
Liege
Huy
Namur
Charleroi
Dinant
Philippeville
Marche
Durlay
la Roche
Salme
Stable Abbey
Spa
Limbourg
Verviers
Thenx
Franchimont
Abbey of Malmedy
Gemblours
Tillemont
Judoigne
Wavre
Nivelle
Tillu
Binche
Mons
Valenciennes
Lens
Douay
Orchies
Lille
Tournay
Leuse
Ath
Enghien
Soignies
Rochefort
Hainaut
Cambray
Landrecy
Bapaume
Arras
Bethune
Aire
St Venant
Armentieres
Ypres
Warwick
Menin
Courtray
Oudenard
Nieuve
Alost
Dendermonde
Gent
Deynse
Dixmuyden
Furnes
Nieuport
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Ambleteuse
Marquise
Ardres
Guisnes
Fort Knoke
Berg St Vinox
Mont Cassel
St Omer
Aire
Lillers
Isabelle
Renescure
Estaple
Montreuil
St Pol
Hesdin
Rue
St Valeri
St Riquier
Abbeville
Doullens
Albert
Corbie
Bray
Peronne
Le Catelet
Pequigny
Amiens
Vermand
St Quintin
Guise
Vervins
Ribemont
Marle
Montcornet
Ham
Chauny
Oyse R
la Fere
Crespy
Laon
Nayon
Roye
Montdidier
Brueil
Ailette R
Aisne R
Somme R
Peronne
Ancre R
Lys R
Scheld R
Dender R
Dyle R
Demer R
Meuse R
Sambre R
Lieger R
Roer R
Rhine R
Yssel R
Waal R
Maese R
Ourthe R
Semois R
Chiers R
Lesse R
Lys
Yssel
Over Flackee
Schouwen
Zirizee
Goes Land
Beveland
Tholen
Walcheren
Middleburg
Flushing
Caudsand
Sheldt
Ternewse
Axel
Hulst
Sas of Gent
Terneuse
Sluys
Blankenberg
Ostend
Bruges
Newport
Furnes
Dunkirk
Gravelines
Calais
Dixmuyden
Deynse
Gent
Dendermonde
Alost
Oudenard
Courtray
Menin
Warwick
Ypres
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Lisle R
Aventrop
Pont a Vendin
Grenant
Lens
Douay
Valenciennes
Marchiennes
Mons
Binche
Soignies
Rochefort
Leuse
Ath
Enghien
Brain
Lille
Tournay
Orchies
St Amand
Renaume
Bethune
Aire
St Venant
Armentieres
Isabelle
Lillers
Estaple
Montreuil
St Pol
Hesdin
Arras
Bapaume
Cambray
Landrecy
Avesnes
Maubeuge
Binche
Nivelle
Tillu
Gembloux
Wavre
Judoigne
Tillemont
Louvain
Tirlemont
Diest
Aerschot
Mechelen
Rupelmonde
Antwerp
Herentals
Liere
Hasselt
Stockem
Maseyck
Ruremonde
Weirdt
Hoorn
Peer
Stefens
Erckelens
Sichem
Helem
Henk
Reken
Maestricht
Valkenburg
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Roldne
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Abbey of Malmedy
Statkyll
Schonreck
Dalenzart
Welschbillich
Trevers
Saarbruck
Saarburg
Sarloun
Breda
Bergen op Zoom
Hoogstraten
Gertruydenberg
Willemstadt
Bommel
Tiel
Wahal R
Zutphen
Arnhem
Cleves
Wesel
Rees
Emmerick
Boeckholt
Bercken
Scherpenbeck
Crevelt
Meurs
Kempen
Rhine
Crainenburg
Dusseldorp
Meer
Nuys
Elzen
Juliers
Berchem
Duren
Kerpen
Zulch
Bullingen
Statkyll
Schonreck
Dalenzart
Welschbillich
Trevers
Saarbruck
Saarburg
Sarloun
Neuchatel
Gournay
Lions
Beauvais
Amale
Crequi
Conti
Montdidier
Brueil
Roye
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Sambre R
Lieger R
Roer R
Rhine R
Yssel R
Waal R
Maese R
Ourthe R
Semois R
Chiers R
Lesse R
Lys
Yssel
Rhetalmazarin
Chateau Porcien
Neuschatel
Rocroy
Chateau Renault
Hanbery Fontaine
Charleville
Mezieres
Sedan
Vrie
Donchery
Mouzon
la Ferte
Marville
Jametz
Stenay
Ill. of Bouillon
Venu Chateau
Herbemont
Arlon
Longwy
Virton
Villers
Rodemacher
Syrk
Luxemburg
Remich
Frauden berg
Grevenmacher
Echternach
Berbagen
Beaufort
Ecth
Wasserel
Hamden
Dudeszart
Baslogne
St Hubert
Rochefort
Givet
Chimay
Rocroy
Hentdrez
Clermax
Durlay
la Roche
Marche
Dinant
Philippeville
Charlemont
Mariembourg
Avesnes
Maubeuge
Landrecy
Cambray
Bapaume
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Bethune
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St Venant
Armentieres
Ypres
Warwick
Menin
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Dunkirk
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Calais
Boulogne
Ambleteuse
Marquise
Ardres
Guisnes
Fort Knoke
Berg St Vinox
Mont Cassel
St Omer
Aire

liberty, and are now to be ranked among the Independen States of Europe. A revolution ſo remarkable cannot but draw the attention of the public towards this country in a more particular manner than before; for which reaſon we ſhall give a diſtinct account of each of the provinces which have newly united themſelves by a league of mutual defence.

1. *Brabant* is bounded on the eaſt by the biſhopric of Liege; on the weſt by the Scheld and part of Flanders; on the north by the Maeſe, which divides it from Holland and Gelderland; and on the ſouth by Namur, Hainault, and part of the biſhopric of Liege. It is by ſome ſuppoſed to take its name from the *Bratuſpantium* of the Latins, which is by Cæſar placed in this tract; but by others it is thought to be derived from the word *Brackland*, ſignifying a barren country, which this originally was, until rendered otherwiſe by the induſtry of the inhabitants. It extends in length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt about 120 miles, and is nearly as much in breadth. The air of this province is indifferent, but the ſoil generally fruitful, being made ſo artificially where nature has in part denied her gifts. It contains a conſiderable number of towns; the moſt important of which are, 1. Bois le Duc, about ſix miles ſouth of the river Maeſe, and 30 eaſt of Breda, called by the Dutch Hertogen Boſch, Bois le Duc, or Bolduc, and Sylva Ducis, or Boſcum Ducis by the Latins. All theſe names it had from a wood ſituated in the place where the town now ſtands, and which belonged to the dukes of Brabant. It is large, well fortified, and remarkable for its manufactures of cloth. It was made an epiſcopal ſee in 1559; and has an elegant cathedral. 2. Aerſchot, on the river Domer, 23 miles eaſt of Mechlin, and 27 north-eaſt of Bruſſels. The river Domer runs through the town, and the Aa on the eaſt, both of which unite their ſtreams a little below, and form one river. This town gave the title of duke to the houſe of Croy, deſcended from the kings of Hungary. 3. Bergen-op-Zoom, ſituated on the conflux of the river Zoom and Scheld, 23 miles north of Antwerp, ſtrongly fortified, and formerly thought to be impregnable, till it was taken by count Lowendahl, who ſerved under the French king in 1747. 4. Breda, on the river Byloop, 24 miles north-eaſt of Antwerp, a well fortified town in the territory of Steenbergen. It was the chief reſidence of the princes of Orange, and is remarkable for its ſieges by the Spaniards.

Theſe and ſeveral other towns, as well as a part of the country, belong to the Dutch; but the capital of the Auſtrian part is Bruſſels, where the viceroy reſided. It is a rich and handſome city, ſituated on the river Senne, which runs through it. It is very large, being no leſs than ſeven miles in compaſs; it has ſeven gates, and is ſurrounded with a double wall. It has alſo ſeven ſquares or market places; of which that called the great market is accounted one of the fineſt in the world. The town-houſe takes up one quarter of it, and has a very high ſteeple, on the top of which is a brazen ſtatue of St Michael, 15 feet high. There are alſo many fine palaces; and no city in Europe, except Naples and Genoa, makes a finer appearance at a diſtance. This city, like moſt others of the Netherlands, has ſuffered ſeverely from the French. In 1695 it was bombarded by the marſhal Villeroy, who deſtroyed 4000 houſes, the ſtadthouſe, and ſeveral churches. It was beſieged again by the duke of Bavaria, in 1708; but the duke of Marlborough obliged him to raiſe the ſiege. It was taken by marſhall Saxe in 1746, but reſtored by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle.

The capital of this province formerly was Louvain, pleaſantly ſeated on the river Dyle, in a fine agreeable country, about 18 miles eaſt from Bruſſels, and 30 ſouth of Antwerp. It is of very conſiderable extent, the walls being no leſs than eight or nine miles in circumference; but it is very thinly inhabited in proportion to its bulk; ſeveral fields and vineyards being included within the walls. It is ſaid to have nine market-places, 14 water-mills, 126 ſtreets, 16 ſtone bridges, and ſeveral very handſome palaces. It has a caſtle ſituated on a hill, ſurrounded with gardens, and having a fine proſpect of the adjacent country. The origin of this city is not eaſily determined, but the moſt probable account is that given by Lipſius, viz. that there was here a caſtle, named Loven, where the Normans were ſtopped after they had plundered all the country round. After this they encamped on the banks of the Dyle, in the plain of Louvain, entrenched themſelves in the neighbourhood, and built huts near their encampment, from which the town gradually increaſed. Before the perſecution by the duke of Alva, Louvain had a conſiderable ſhare of commerce, and was particularly famous for the extent to which the manufacture of cloth was brought: but moſt of the people by whom this trade was carried on being forced into England, it was transferred to that country; ſince which time Louvain has continued to decline, and now they have little or no commerce, except in beer, which they call *Peterman*, and ſell throughout the country.

The province of Brabant was anciently inhabited by the Celtic nations called Aduatici and Tungri. By the Romans it was accounted part of Germany; and when the country became ſubject to the French, it was by them reckoned a part of eaſt France, or Auſtraſia. In the barbarous ages the northern parts of Brabant were very much infeſted by the Danes, Normans, and other robbers. Theſe were repulſed by Theodebert, the firſt king of Auſtraſia, aſſiſted by Utilo a Bavarian prince, in conſideration of which Theodebert obtained for him the government of this country, and part of ſome other provinces, under the title of Lord Marquis of Antwerp. By a ſucceeding monarch the whole was conferred on Anſegiſus, with the title of Duke of Brabant. On the acceſſion of Pepin the duchy returned to the crown of France; but, on the diviſion of that empire, was annexed to the kingdom of Lorrain. It was conquered by Otho II. and by him added to the German empire. He beſtowed it, however, along with the whole of Lorrain, upon Charles the younger brother of the king of France, with the title of Duke of Brabant. On the acceſſion of the Houſe of Auſtria to the kingdom of Spain, it became, along with the other provinces of the Netherlands, ſubject to the Spaniſh yoke; and till laſt year has continued to be oppreſſed either by one or other of theſe powers, with the additional misfortune of being a ſeat of war whenever the neighbouring nations thought proper to contend with each other.

2. *Antwerp* with its dependencies, though ſurrounded by Brabant, is nevertheleſs a diſtinct government. The principal place is Antwerp, a city long celebrated for its commerce, and which is alſo called the capital of the marquiſate of the holy Roman empire. It lies about 31 miles to the northward of Bruſſels, in a marſhy ground; but is large and well built, containing 200 ſtreets, all of them ſtraight and broad, partiularly that called the *Mere*, in which ſix coaches may paſs abreaſt; and at the head of this ſtreet is a crucifix of braſs, 33 feet high. There are in this city 22 ſquares; the houſes are loſty, built moſtly of free ſtone, and

have

have an air of antiquity and grandeur, with courts before, and gardens behind. The exchange is the moſt magnificent ſtructure of its kind in Europe, being the model on which thoſe of London and Amſterdam were built. The expence is ſaid to have been no leſs than 300,000 crowns. Towards the end of the 15th century, this was one of the moſt celebrated cities in the world. The Scheld, on which it ſtands, being 20 feet deep at low-water, and riſing 20 feet more at flood, ſhips of the greateſt burthen came up to the quays, as in the Thames at London. But when the United States ſhook off the yoke of Spain, they obtained the entire command of the Scheld; by which means the trade of Antwerp was ruined, and transferred to Amſterdam. Since that time the inhabitants have turned their attention to jewelling and banking, in which they have been very ſucceſsful. The city is ſurrounded by a fine wall, planted with rows of trees on each ſide, with walks between, broad enough for two coaches to go abreaſt. It is alſo defended by a very ſtrong citadel, in form of a pentagon, which was erected by the duke of Alva in 1568. In 1585 the place underwent a remarkable ſiege by the duke of Parma, and was at laſt taken, chiefly through the extreme avarice of the inhabitants, who would not be at the expence of defending themſelves; though it is ſaid that the city of Amſterdam, which wiſhed its deſtruction, had obſtructed every method for its relief. It was again taken by the duke of Marlborough after the battle of Ramillies, and in 1746 by marſhal Saxe; but was reſtored by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. This city has a ſingular privilege conferred upon it by ſome of its princes, viz. that every perſon born in it is a citizen, though his parents were foreigners; on which account women with child frequently come to be delivered here.

3. *The Signiory of Mechlin*, or *Malines*, conſiſts only of the city of Mechlin itſelf, and a ſmall adjacent territory about 10 miles in length by five where broadeſt, containing ſome villages. And about twelve miles eaſt of Mechlin is another ſmall territory, likewiſe belonging to it, about nine miles long by three broad, with one village, named Heyſt. The city is a place of ſome conſequence, being ſituated on the river Dyle, which runs through its middle; the tide flowing up for a league beyond the town. There are a number of ſmall iſlands formed by the river in the very heart of the city, which is a ſingular ornament, as well as convenience. It is a rich and elegant town, the See of an archbiſhop, and containing ſeven pariſh churches. It is likewiſe very ſtrong, as the adjacent country may eaſily be laid under water for a conſiderable way.

4. *Limburg* is bounded on the eaſt by the duchy of Gulick in Germany; on the weſt and ſouth by the biſhopric of Liege; and on the north by Brabant. The ſoil is fertile in all the neceſſaries of life excepting vines; but the want of theſe is abundantly recompenſed by the plenty of excellent wheat it produces, together with great abundance of fewel, and iron of the beſt quality. There is alſo ſome lapis calaminaris uſed in making braſs. The principal places are, 1. Limburg, the capital, ſituated amongſt woods on a hill near the ſouthern confines of the biſhop of Liege's dominions, below which runs the river Weſdo, a branch of the Maeſe. It is well fortified, and has a caſtle ſeated on the top of a ſteep rock. 2. Maeſtricht, formerly belonging to Brabant. It is ſituated on the river Maeſe, yet its territory extends beyond it, and has its name from a ferry over that river, whoſe place is now ſupplied by a

ſtone bridge. It is a large and handſome town. 3. Dalem, a ſmall fortified town with a caſtle. It was conquered by Henry the Second of that name, duke of Brabant. 4. Fequemont, or Valkenburg, is a tolerably large and neat town, about eleven miles eaſt from Maeſtricht, ſituated on a branch of the Maeſe, named Geul, conquered by John the third duke of Brabant. 5. Rolduc, a ſmall town with an old caſtle, about eight miles from the former. 6. Carpen, ſituated between Gulick and Cologne, having a ſtrong caſtle well garriſoned.

In former times the province of Limburg, as well as the biſhopric of Liege, was inhabited by the people called *Eburones*. It was afterwards created an earldom, but the time is uncertain. It was erected into a duchy by the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa. One of the dukes of Brabant having married a daughter of the duke of Limburg, founded ſome pretenſions to his duchy upon this account; and, on the death of another duke, named Henry, it was ſold to the duke of Brabant in 1293. But Reynold, earl of Flanders, ſuppoſing his own title to be preferable, endeavoured to recover it by force of arms. He was, however, overthrown and taken priſoner; being obliged, in order to obtain his releaſe, to give up all title to the duchy of Limburg; after which it continued in poſſeſſion of the dukes of Brabant till both fell together firſt under the power of France, and then of the emperors of Germany.

5. *Luxemburg* is bounded on the eaſt by the river Moſelle and the duchy of Triers; on the weſt by the Meuſe or Maeſe, and a branch of the foreſt of Ardenne; on the north by Liege, Namur, and a part of Hainault; and on the ſouth by the duchy of Lorrain. It is about 200 miles in circumference, the principal towns being the following: 1. Luxemberg the capital, anciently the Auguſta Veromanduorum of Ptolemy; its preſent name being ſuppoſed to come from *Lucis Burgum*, the city of light, from the image of the ſun formerly worſhipped there. It is ſeated on the river Obzel, and is ſtrong, but not very well built; nor has it yet recovered what it underwent from the wars between the French and Spaniards. Here is the tomb of the king of Bohemia ſlain in the battle of Creſſy, as has been related in the hiſtory of France. 2. Arlun, a town ſituated on the top of an hill, and ſuppoſed to take its name from an altar conſecrated there to the moon in the times of Paganiſm; the word *Arlun* being a contraction of *Ara Lunæ*, the altar of the moon. Part of this province belongs to France: eleven miles ſouth of Luxemburg town we enter that part ſubject to France. Luxemburg was at firſt a part of the earldom of Ardenne, but diſmembered from it in the time of the emperor Otho I. Its hiſtory after that time affords nothing of importance.

6. *Namur* is bounded on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, by the biſhopric of Liege; and on the north by Brabant. It is a pleaſant and fertile country, but of ſmall extent. The air is pure and wholeſome, and the ground watered with many fine brooks and rivulets, beſides the two large rivers the Sambre and Maeſe. Theſe are of uſe to the inhabitants, not only by facilitating the conveyance of goods from one place to another, but likewiſe by the abundance of fiſh they ſupply. There are but few hills; but theſe are covered with woods, and abound with game of various kinds. There is great plenty of excellent iron, as well as mines of lead and coal, with quarries of fine marble, jaſper, and porphyry. The principal places are, 1. Namur the capital, ſituated between two hills, on both ſides the river Sambre, where it falls into the Maeſe. It is a rich

and

and well fortified place, defended by a ſtrong caſtle, and adorned with a fine cathedral. Like other towns of the Netherlands, Namur has been an object of contention in the wars betwixt Britain and France. 2. Bovines, a ſmall town ſituated on the river Maeſe. It was taken and plundered by the French in 1544, but has ſince been repaired. 3. Charleroi, 18 miles weſt of Namur on the Sambre, built by Charles V. in 1555, to ſtop the progreſs of the French.

This country made part of the ancient Gaul; its inhabitants were called *Nervij*, and made a ſtout reſiſtance againſt Cæſar. It was made an earldom by ſome of the firſt French monarchs; but it is uncertain how long it continued to be poſſeſſed by theſe ſovereigns; however, it fell at laſt under the power of France, from which it paſſed to the emperors of Germany.

7. *Hainault*, of which a part belongs to France, is bounded on the eaſt by Namur, and part of the biſhopric of Liege; on the weſt by Flanders; on the north by Brabant; on the ſouth by Picardy and Champagne in France. Formerly it was called *Hannonia*, and *Saltus Carbonarius*, the *Charcoal Foreſt*, from the great quantities of charcoal made from its woods. It is about 60 miles long, and 48 broad; the air is wholeſome and the ſoil fruitful, producing both corn and paſture, as well as all kinds of fruit-trees in abundance. It has alſo plenty of paſture, with mines of iron and lead, with excellent quarries of marble and other ſtones fit for building. The principal towns are, 1. Mons, ſituated at the conflux of the Haine, with a rivulet named *Trulle*, 32 miles ſouth-weſt of Bruſſels. It is a large, beautiful, and wealthy place, ſtrongly fortified with a wall, three large and deep ditches, and a caſtle beſides. 2. Aeth, 17 miles north-weſt of Mons, a ſmall fortified town, ſeated on both ſides of the river Dender. It was taken in queen Anne's war by the duke of Marlborough. This province was anciently inhabited by the Nervij, and becoming in latter ages part of the earldom of Ardenne, paſſed firſt to the French, and afterwards to the emperors of Germany.

8. *Flanders* is bounded on the eaſt by Hainault and Brabant; on the weſt by the German Ocean; on the north by the ſeas of Zealand, and the weſt Scheld; and on the ſouth by Picardy in France. The etymology of the name is very uncertain. It is about 90 miles long and 60 broad, containing ſo many towns and villages, that the Spaniards at their firſt arrival with Philip II. took the whole province for one town. It is divided into three parts, one poſſeſſed by the Dutch, the other by the French, and the third formerly ſubject to the Emperor, but now independent. The principal places in Dutch Flanders are, 1. Sluys, 11 miles north by eaſt of Bruges, and 47 weſt of Antwerp, having a large and fine harbour capable of containing 500 ſhips. Oppoſite to this lies the iſle of Caſſant, formerly much bigger than at preſent, and having a large town, as well as ſeveral rich villages, but moſt of it is now ſwallowed up by the ſea. 2. Axel, 24 miles eaſt of Sluys, and 17 north of Ghent, taken from the emperor Henry IV. by *Baldwin le Debonnaire*, earl of Flanders. 3. Hulſt, a fortified town, 6 miles eaſt of Axel, and 18 weſt of Antwerp.

The capital of the Belgic part of this Province is Ghent, 34 miles N. W. of Bruſſels, and 32 S. W. of Antwerp, a large city, being not leſs than 10 miles in circuit, including the ſuburbs, though leſs populous than many others of ſmaller ſize. It is very conveniently ſituated on the rivers Scheld and Ley, both which run through it, forming 26 iſlands, joined together

together by 98 bridges. This place is remarkable for the birth of John duke of Lancaſter, ſtiled John of Gaunt, and the emperor Charles V. It is now much fallen from its former ſplendor, having been often ſeverely treated by the emperors, againſt whom the inhabitants raiſed frequent ſeditions. 2. Bruges, though an inland town, was formerly a place of great conſequence, and the people ſo wealthy, that the ſumptuous dreſſes of the women excited the envy of Queen Joan, wife of Philip the Fair, who complained of it to her huſband when ſhe viſited this city. At that time its trade was ſo extenſive, that it was reckoned one of the four mart-towns in Chriſtendom It was chiefly ſupported by the cloth trade with England, and ſenſibly decayed when this was removed to Antwerp. It is four miles in circumference within the walls, formerly extremely populous, and adorned with many fair and ſumptuous buildings, the ſtreets large and ſtraight, with a ſpacious market-place, from which ſix of the principal ones paſs to as many gates. 3. Oſtend, an open place till the wars in the Netherlands commenced, and then fortified only with a mud wall. It ſuſtained a memorable ſiege from the archduke of Auſtria, which commenced even before the wall was finiſhed. It was at that time garriſoned by Britiſh ſoldiers, and held out, notwithſtanding it was ſo ſlightly fortified, for three years and three months. At the commencement of the ſiege, the archduchеſs Iſabel is ſaid to have ſworn that ſhe would not change her ſhift till the town was taken. 4. Newport, 10 miles ſouth-weſt of Oſtend, an handſome town, with a very ſtrong caſtle, and well frequented harbour, though not very fit for large veſſels. Near this place was fought a battle in 1603, betwixt Albert archduke of Auſtria, and the States, in which, chiefly through the valour of the Britiſh auxiliaries, the States obtained a victory. 5. Courtray, 28 miles ſouth-weſt of Ghent, and 49 weſt of Bruſſels, on the river Ley, one of the moſt ancient towns in Flanders, and very ſtrong, both by art and nature. It is remarkable for a great defeat given to the French in 1301, which for a long time procured it the title of the *Sepulchre of Frenchmen*. 6. Oudenarde, ſeated on the river Scheld, 16 miles ſouth of Ghent, and 32 weſt of Bruſſels, a large and ſtrong town, carrying on a conſiderable commerce in fine linen and tapeſtry. It was the birth-place of Margaret ducheſs of Parma, mother of the renowned warrior Alexander prince of Parma. In the neighbourhood of this city alſo a memorable victory was gained over the French, by the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene. 7. Tournay, ſituated likewiſe on the Scheld, is a large, wealthy, and very ſtrong town. It is a place of great importance, and has been an object of contention betwixt the French and inhabitants of the country. The former prevailed, and kept poſſeſſion of the town till the year 1513, when it was taken from them by Henry VIII. of England. From him the Flemings ranſomed it for 10,000 ducats; nevertheleſs, he ſold it to the French in 1518 for 600,000 crowns; but it was taken from them by Charles V. who reſtored it to the Flemings. In conſequence of this long ſeparation it is governed as a diſtinct ſtate, and has a juriſdiction over ſome part of the country around it. It was taken in queen Anne's time by the duke of Marlborough, after a terrible ſiege of three weeks; and in its neighbourhood the duke of Cumberland was defeated with great ſlaughter, by Marſhal Saxe in 1744, ſoon after which the town ſubmitted to the French, but was reſtored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

7. Ypres,

7. Ypres, a ſtrong and almoſt impregnable town, ſeated on a ſmall river of the ſame name. It is ſo well ſupplied with water, which is brought into almoſt every houſe in leaden pipes, that the foundations ſeem to be laid with lead. 9. Comines, on the Lis, is memorable for the birth of the celebrated ſtateſman and hiſtorian Philip de Comines. It is defended by a ſtrong caſtle. 10. Menin, ſeated on the river Lis, 35 miles ſouth-weſt of Ghent, and 56 weſt of Bruſſels. It is a ſmall place, conſiſting only of one ſtreet, but well built, and carries on ſome trade in woollen cloths and beer, for which its inhabitants are famous. It is extremely well fortified, being reckoned one of the maſter-pieces of the celebrated engineer Vauban. The duke of Marlborough took it in 1706, after 18 days open trenches; but it was taken by Marſhal Saxe in 1744, in no longer time than four days. It is one of the barrier towns. 11. Furnes, a ſtrong town, ſituated on the river Calme, having on the north the canal between Bruges and Dunkirk; ſeven miles ſouth-weſt of Newport, and eleven north-weſt of Dixmuyde. It is ſmall, but agreeable, and well built; and there is a famous collegiate church, called St Walburg. It has ſeveral manufactures, particularly of cloth; and their trade is very conveniently carried on by means of canals; but it is not extenſive. It is capital of a ſmall territory, and makes part of the barrier againſt the French. A boat goes every day from this place to Newport, Oſtend, Bruges, and Dunkirk. The town is ſaid to have originated from a neighbouring caſtle, repaired by Baldwin earl of Flanders, which had been deſigned originally to ſtop the incurſions of barbarians. It was firſt ſurrounded by walls in 1390. 12. Dendermonde, a fortified town at the conflux of the river Dender, with the Eſcaut, 16 miles eaſt of Ghent, and 21 north-weſt of Bruſſels. It is very ſtrong by ſituation, as the inhabitants have it in their power to overflow the adjacent country. It has ſix ſpacious market-places, and 26 bridges, 16 of which are of ſtone, and the reſt of timber. The houſes for the moſt part are ſpacious and convenient, generally with a canal before, and handſome gardens behind. 13. Ninove, on the river Dender, 20 miles ſouth of Antwerp, and 17 weſt of Bruſſels. It is a ſmall town, and has a caſtle indifferently fortified.

Air, Soil, Produce, and Face of the Country. Theſe have been partly taken notice of in the deſcriptions juſt given. We may ſtill obſerve, however, that, on the ſea-coaſts, the air is leſs pure than in the inland parts, where the weather is much more conſtant and ſettled than with us. Formerly the country was one of the richeſt ſpots in Europe, and ſo fertile in grain of all kinds, that it was accounted the granary of France and Germany, and even of England. Flax is here cultivated with care, and arrives at great perfection. In latter times, however, this extraordinary wealth has declined conſiderably, ſuppoſed chiefly to be owing to the increaſed commerce of Britain and Holland, which lie in its neighbourhood. The face of the country is generally level, particularly Flanders, but the reſt of the provinces have a number of little hills covered with wood.

Rivers and Canals. This country is extremely well watered, both by large rivers and ſmaller ſtreams The principal are the Maeſe, Sambre, Dyle, Damer, Geet, Nethe, Rupple, Saune, Lis, Sheld, Deule, Dender, and Scarpe. The moſt remarkable canals are thoſe of Oſtend, Bruſſels and Ghent.

Metals and Minerals. In ſome of theſe provinces there are met with mines of iron, lead, and copper. Brimſtone is produced in ſome parts, and

and in almoſt all the provinces are quarries of marble. Coal is alſo found in this country, with a kind of fat bituminous earth, uſed by the inhabitants for firing. Conſiderable quantities of nitre are alſo produced in ſome places.

Inhabitants, Manners, &c. The *Flemings* (a general name for the inhabitants of theſe provinces) are generally reputed an heavy and dull kind of people, indelicate in their behaviour, but honeſt, and who will fight deſperately in defence of their country; of which laſt the late revolution is a ſufficient evidence. They are generally ignorant and ſuperſtitious, in conſequence of which their religious ſhews and pageants conſtitute a principal part of their amuſement. In other reſpects their diverſions are the ſame with thoſe of the neighbouring countries. In the Netherlands every gentleman's houſe is a caſtle; and there are more ſtrong towns here than in any other part of Europe of equal extent. That this ſhould be the caſe indeed is not to be wondered at, when we conſider how liable their country has been to be made the ſeat of war, through the contentions of the neighbouring powers. Since the decline of the commerce of the country, however, owing to the increaſe of that of Britain and Holland, theſe cities have much decayed, inſomuch that whole ſtreets are now in a manner totally uninhabited. Proviſions here are extremely good and cheap, ſo that a ſtranger may dine in Bruſſels on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat for no more than a ſhilling. The roads here are generally broad, and cauſewayed, running for ſeveral miles in a ſtraight line, and at laſt terminating in the view of ſome noble buildings; ſo that travelling is very eaſy and delightful.

Dreſs. In this particular the inhabitants of the Belgic Provinces reſemble the Dutch or French, according to their vicinity to each.

Language. In theſe provinces which border upon Holland, the Dutch is generally ſpoken; but in other parts a corrupt kind of French, commonly called the *Walloon*, is made uſe of, and which is compoſed of a mixture of Dutch and Spaniſh, along with the French.

Religion. The eſtabliſhed religion in theſe provinces is the Roman Catholic; though the various ſects of Proteſtants are not moleſted.

Archbiſhoprics, Biſhoprics, and Univerſities. The archbiſhoprics are thoſe of Cambray and Malines, or Mechlin; the biſhoprics thoſe of Burges, Arras, Antwerp, Ghent, Tournay, St Omer, Ypres, Namur, and Ruremonde. The univerſities are thoſe of Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St Omer. That of Louvain was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and is ſaid to reſemble the Engliſh univerſities more than any other. The hall where the public exerciſes are made is a large ſquare building of free ſtone, and a conſiderable ornament to the city. Here are three ſpacious rooms where lectures are read every morning in divinity, civil law, and phyſic; and to which the ſcholars from every college in the univerſity, and of which there are no fewer than 60, may reſort at pleaſure. Among all theſe colleges, however, there are only four where ſtrict diſcipline is obſerved. Theſe are for the education of the younger claſs, the others being appointed for ſuch as are more advanced in years. The ſtudents in theſe colleges are obliged, at their matriculation, to take an oath that they believe all the articles of the church of Rome. The profeſſors of theſe four colleges chooſe annually 48 ſcholars of two years ſtanding; and, out of that number, twelve are choſen, after public examination, to exhibitions. The degrees they take here are thoſe of licentiate, and doctor; the firſt

being a kind of middle rank between batchelor and doctor, and anſwering to our maſter of arts. On his going out he is conducted from the ſchools with trumpets and drums, gives a general treat to the doctors, and diſtributes gloves. A bell is rung at his lodgings for 24 hours; he is at liberty to chuſe a coat of arms, and immediately accounted a gentleman. The governor of the univerſity, ſtiled the rector, takes place even of the firſt magiſtrate of the city, and is choſen every half year by the *Senatus Academicus*. The ſcholars are in complete ſubjection to him; and he is preceded, on holidays and ſolemn proceſſions, by eight beadles, who carry ſilver maces. Another officer, ſtiled the *Promoter*, has even the power of inflicting death, under the authority of the rector; though crimes are generally expiated by money. The conſervator is likewiſe an officer of great authority, and being an eccleſiaſtical perſon, has the power, in conjunction with his aſſeſſor, of inflicting the ſentence of excommunication; and if the offender continues obſtinate, he is delivered up to the ſecular power. They have likewiſe a chancellor, whoſe only buſineſs is to confer degrees, and who, in all public aſſemblies, takes place next the rector. Degrees of five faculties are conferred here, viz. divinity, canon law, civil law, phyſic, and arts; and the *Senatus Academicus* is compoſed of the ſuperior graduates in theſe faculties.

Learning and Learned Men. The Belgic Provinces, as well as thoſe of the United States, can moſtly boaſt of works of theology and canon law; however, the country has produced ſome good hiſtorians, particularly Philip de Comines, and Strada, the latter being both an hiſtorian and poet. They have alſo produced many Latin poems and plays; but the Jeſuits, who for a long time enjoyed comfortable ſettlements in theſe countries, were their principal learned men. The Flemiſh painters have attained to a great degree of reputation, as well as the ſculptors. The works of Rubens and Vandyke have been particularly admired.

Antiquities and Curioſities. Theſe countries, as well as other parts of the Roman empire, ſtill diſcover marks of the grandeur of that people, though leſs common than in ſome other countries. In the year 1607, a great number of ancient coins and medals in the times of Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius, and Lucus Verus, were dug up by ſome labourers. In ſome of the cities are bells of conſiderable magnitude, particularly one named Rowland, which weighs 11000 pounds, and hangs in a tower in Ghent. The ſounding gallery at Bruſſels, which repeats an echo 15 times, is a remarkable curioſity. The cathedral at Antwerp has no fewer than 66 different chapels. At Aloſt in Flanders is ſhewn the tomb of Theodore Martin, who brought the art of printing here from Germany, with a long epitaph written by Eraſmus. At Ghent, travellers are commonly deſired to take notice of a bridge, called *Dogebrack*, where there are two ſtatues of braſs, repreſenting a ſon cutting off his father's head with a ſabre. There is a ſtory of this in 1371, when both the father and ſon are ſaid to have been condemned to die for ſome crime; but a pardon was offered to him who would become the executioner of the other. The father at laſt prevailed upon his ſon to undertake the horrid office; but, juſt as he was ready to ſtrike, the blade of the ſword broke in his hand, which being looked upon as a miraculous interpoſition of providence, they were both pardoned. The lake near St Omer's, ſaid to contain the floating iſlands, has been already noticed.

Manufactures and Commerce. Theſe countries are principally remarkable for their linen and fine laces, which now conſtitute the chief articles of their commerce. Formerly they carried on a great trade in various commodities with all the nations in Europe, but this has long ſince been transferred to the Dutch. The latter induſtriouſly ſet themſelves to ruin this commerce ſoon after they had obtained their own liberty. For this purpoſe they ſunk ſhips in the mouth of the Scheld, ſo that the river was made impaſſible by ſhips of heavy burthen; was the more cruel, as the Antwerpers had been fellow ſufferers with them in the cauſe of liberty.

Conſtitution and Government. This being entirely new-modelled by the late revolution, cannot at preſent be particularly deſcribed; as no authentic accounts have yet been publiſhed, nor is it probably yet entirely ſettled.

Revenues. Of theſe no account can as yet be given for the reaſon juſt mentioned. Before the revolution they were ſaid to be ſo reduced as not to be able to defray the expence of government; and by attempts to augment theſe revenues the revolution was brought on.

Military Strength. This alſo cannot be determined until the government of the Belgic Provinces be finally adjuſted.

Arms. Theſe are Or, a lion ſable, languid gules.

Hiſtory. See French Netherlands.

FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

THE territories of the French in theſe countries conſiſt only of the provinces of Cambray and Artois, with part of thoſe of Luxemburg, Hainault, and Flanders.

Cambray, or *Cambreſis*, lies to the ſouthward of Hainault, of which it was formerly reckoned a part, and agrees with it in general, in the climate, ſoil, and produce. The principal place is Cambray, the capital, by the Romans named *Cameracum*. It is ſituated on both ſides of the river Scheld, and is very large, well built, and populous. It is principally remarkable for the manufacture of that fine kind of linen named *Cambric*, ſo called from the place where it is fabricated. About ſix leagues from this city ſtands a village, named *Chaſteau Cambrenſis*, remarkable for a treaty between France and Spain, concluded in 1559, where a tedious war, which had involved almoſt all Europe, was at laſt concluded. Before that time another treaty had been concluded at this place, in which the kings of France and Spain, the Emperor, the Pope, and ſeveral of the princes of Europe combined againſt the Venetians; which combination was called the League of Cambray. The province of Cambray was made a biſhopric as early as the year 390; the firſt biſhop being called Saint Diogenes. In proceſs of time his ſucceſſors became ſo powerful, that in time they obtained both the temporal

temporal and ſpiritual juriſdiction of the territory. At laſt they were honoured with the title of dukes and princes of the empire; and Pope Paul IV. created the ſovereign at that time an archbiſhop, in the year 1562. The city was made imperial by the emperors of Germany, though the French frequently obtained poſſeſſion of it; but they were driven out, on account of their oppreſſions, in the time of the emperor Maximilian. A ſtrong citadel was built in it by Charles V. It was taken by the duke of Alenzon, brother to Henry III. of France, in 1582; but ſoon after retaken by the Spaniards. From that time it continued in the hands of the Spaniards, till the victories of the duke of Marlborough put it into the hands of the Houſe of Auſtria, who poſſeſſed it until the year 1748, when it fell into the hands of the French, who ſtill retain it.

The province of Artois is bounded on the eaſt by part of Flanders and the archbiſhopric of Cambray; on the ſouth and weſt by Picardy; and on the north by part of Flanders and the river Lis. It takes its name from the *Atrebates*, who anciently inhabited it. The air is healthful, and the ſoil extremely fertile. The principal places are 1. Arras, the capital, and which has been ſo ever ſince the time of Julius Cæſar, is a large, populous, and well fortified place, formerly the ſee of a biſhop, divided into two towns, both of them walled; and is remarkable for the manufacture of the cloth named *Arras*, which is ſo called from the town. 2. St Omer, ſo called from *Omar*, or *Andemarus*, biſhop of the place, who was dignified with the title of Saint. It is an handſome and populous place, ſeated on the river Colme, about twenty-one miles from the ſea. In its neighbourhood is a fine lake of freſh water, in which are a number of ſmall iſlands; ſome of which, Guicciardini tells us, floated on the water, and might be drawn from place to place by means of cords; vaſt quantities of fiſh being found in the places which they had left. 3. Bethune, a ſtrong town, ſituated among excellent paſtures, by which means the people are enabled to make great quantities of the beſt cheeſe. 4. Aire, ſituated on the river Lis, 11 miles S. E. of St Omer. It is a ſtrong place, and has a caſtle of great antiquity.

This province, as well as Flanders, was anciently little better than one continued foreſt, until it fell into the hands of the French. About the year 621 it was given by the French monarch, together with Flanders, and part of Picardy, to one *Lideric de Buque*, with the title of *Foreſter*, to be holden under the ſovereign of that crown. Theſe countries continued in the poſſeſſion of Lideric's poſterity, under the title of *Foreſters*, till the time of Baldwin I. who, having firſt raviſhed, and then married Judith, the ſiſter of Charles the Bald, was by him created earl of Flanders. It afterwards returned to the poſſeſſion of the French monarchs, and from them paſſed to the Houſe of Auſtria.

The principal places poſſeſſed by the French in Flanders are, 1. Liſle, built in 1007 by Baldwin. It was formerly very wealthy, by reaſon of the commerce and manufactures carried on in it; and it was accounted the greateſt commercial city, next to Amſterdam and Antwerp, in all the Netherlands. Near this place are the remains of a caſtle, named *Brug*, formerly the ſeat of the Foreſters above mentioned. 2. Dunkirk, having a ſmall but very convenient harbour, formerly a great object of apprehenſion to Britain.

A TABLE, exhibiting at one View, the Diviſion of the Belgic Provinces, together with thoſe of the Dutch and French Netherlands.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
1. Dutch Brabant - -	Boiſleduc, 18 m. E. of Rotterd.; Breda, 26 miles ſouth eaſt of Rotterdam; Bergen op-Zoom, 33 m. ſouth of Rotterdam	1357
	Lillo, 15 m. ſouth of Berg. op-Zoom	
	Steenbergen, 6 miles north of ditto	
	Grave, 23 m. N. E. of Boiſleduc	
2. Belgic Brabant - -	Bruſſels, E. long. 4 deg. 10 min. N. lat. 50-50.	1893
	Louvain, 18 miles eaſt of Bruſſels; Vilvorden, 7 m. N. E. of Bruſſels; Landen, 34 miles eaſt of Bruſſels	in the middle.

2. ANTWERP, 31 miles north of Bruſſels; and 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and lately ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG.

	Limburg, 89 miles S. by E. of Bruſſels, ſubject to Auſtria	313
Chief Towns -	Maeſtricht, 68 m. E. of Bruſſels; Dalem, 10 m. S. of Maeſtricht; Fauquemont, or Valkenburg, 11 m. E. of Maeſtricht	ſu. o the Dutch. 309

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Belgic Luxemburg - -	Luxemburg, 105 miles S. E. of Bruſſels	
French Luxemburg - -	Thionville, 140 miles S. E. of Bruſſels	2400
	Montmedy, 44 miles S. W. of Luxemburg	293

6. Province

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, ſubject to Auſtria.

			Sq. M
Chief Towns	- -	Namur, on the Sambre & Maeſe, 35 miles S. E. of Bruſſels Charleroy on the Sambre, 30 m. S. of Bruſſ. & 19 W. of Namur	427

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Belgic Hainault	- -	Mons, 32 m. S. W. of Bruſſels Aeth, 27 m. S. W. of Bruſſels Enguien	in the middle	649
French Hainault	- -	Valenciennes, 51 miles S. W. of Bruſſels Bouchain, 12 miles W. of Valenciennes Conde, 16 m. W. of Mons Landrecy, 31 m. S. of Mons		809

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	- -	Cambray, 23 miles S. E. of Arras, and 36 S. W. of Liſle Crevecour, 9 miles S. of Cambray	156

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	-	Arras, 32 miles S. W. of Liſle, on the Scarpe St Omer, 27 m. S. E. of Calais Aire, 11 m. S. E. of St Omer S. Venant, 8 miles E. of Aire Bethune, 20 m S. E. of St Omer Terouen ruins, 8 m. S. E. of do.	996

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Dutch Flanders	- -	Sluys, 11 m. N. E. of Bruges Axel, 16 m. N. of Ghent Hulſt, 19 m. N. of ditto Sas of Ghent, 10 m. N. of ditto	289
Belgic Flanders	- -	Ghent on the Scheld, 34 miles N. W. of Bruſſels Bruges, 27 m. N W. of Ghent Oſtend, 40 m. N. W. of ditto Newport, 10 m. S. W. of Oſtend Oudenarde on the Scheld, 16 m. S. of Ghent Courtray, 50 m. W. of Bruſſels Dixmude, 16 m. S. of Oſtend Ypres, 16 m. N. W. of Liſle Tournay on the Scheld, 16 m. E. of Liſle Deynſe, 11 m. S. W, of Ghent	

Liſle,

French Flanders - -	Liſle, 16 m. W. of Tournay Dunkirk, on the coaſt, 27 m. E. of Calais Douay, 20 miles S. of Liſle Mardike, 5 m. W. of Dunkirk St Amand, 8 m N. W. of Valenciennes Gravelin, 13 miles W. of Dunkirk

GENERAL HISTORY of the SEVENTEEN PROVINCES of the NETHERLANDS.

THESE were anciently comprehended under the general name of Gallia Belgica. The inhabitants were Germans, and fought valiantly in defence of their country when invaded by Julius Cæſar; though they were at laſt overcome and defeated by that hero. Before that time this country had obtained the name of Batavia, from the *Battæ*, a German nation formerly inhabiting Heſſe, but who removed to the marſhy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maeſe. Theſe people were highly eſteemed by the Romans, on account of their valour and other virtues; inſomuch, that they were accounted allies rather than ſubjects. On the decline of the Roman empire, this country, like moſt others in Europe, became a prey to barbarians, as the Danes, Saxons, and Normans; but the Friſians at length getting the better of all their antagoniſts, kept poſſeſſion of it till near the end of the ninth century, when they were ſubdued by Charles Martel and Pepin le Gros. They continued ſubject to France till the extinction of the race of Carlovingian princes in that kingdom, when moſt of the governors, or counts, of the provinces obtained, by the conſent of the people, a kind of limited hereditary adminiſtration, ſuch as has ſince been continued in the ſtadtholders. In proceſs of time the country was, by theſe governors, parcelled out into various diviſions, and the ancient government of the Franks eſtabliſhed, viz. that of three ſtates, or orders, the nobility, clergy, and people, under the limited ſovereignty of one perſon, called the Prince, Duke, or Count; which kind of government continued till the Spaniards endeavoured to ſubvert it. Several privileges were granted to the cities and inferior diſtricts; ſuch as civil judicature, excluſion of all foreigners from places of truſt and profit; an exemption from foreign troops, as well as from all taxes and impoſitions, but what were laid on by conſent of the States.

Thus, as early as the 11th century, the governors of theſe provinces enjoyed an independent power, though they ſtill paid an inſignificant homage to the kings of France, and emperors of Germany. That they might the better be enabled to keep poſſeſſion of their territories, theſe princes admitted the nobility, prelates, and abbots, who had moſt of the lands in their poſſeſſion, to ſhare in their authority, while the common people, encouraged to induſtry by the indulgences granted them, roſe ſooner into conſideration here than in any other country in Europe. Their ſituation being favourable to commerce, they addicted themſelves particularly to it, by which means they ſoon became rich.

This

This wealth the princes were very deſirous of ſharing, which the common people admitted, on condition of being allowed new immunities and privileges. Thus they came at laſt to enjoy a great ſhare of liberty; the cities, populous and wealthy, paid but little deference to the prince, and became a kind of ſmall republics, governed by their own magiſtrates, whoſe voice had great influence in the affairs of the ſtate: the power of the nobles was circumſcribed, and the tyranny of the feudal ſyſtem diſappeared ſooner in this country than any where elſe in Europe.

The increaſe of wealth in theſe parts, by means of the vaſt commerce of the inhabitants, was accompanied with a proportionable advancement of the arts. In the 13th and 14th centuries, when the reſt of Europe was immerſed in barbariſm and ignorance, all the provinces lately known by the name of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and now by that of the Belgic United States, were diſtinguiſhed by the induſtry of the people, and the vaſt manufactures carried on by them. The immenſe profits ariſing from thence, and the commerce they carried on, were by the inhabitants employed in the improvement of their lands, and the advancement of agriculture.

In this proſperous ſituation moſt of theſe countries, by various means, fell under the power of the dukes of Burgundy, who thus became poſſeſſed of the moſt flouriſhing and wealthy dominion in Europe; inſomuch, that they found themſelves in a condition to equal the magnificence of the moſt powerful monarchs in this part of the world. Thus united under one head, and the inhabitants ſtill purſuing their induſtrious plans, the country became ſo wealthy, that, by Philip de Comines, it was likened to the land of Canaan in its utmoſt ſtate of plenty. In the end of the 15th century, however, this rich territory was transferred by marriage to the archduke Maximilian; by which means the Houſe of Auſtria, hitherto of no great conſideration, acquired a vaſt increaſe of wealth and power. In no long time after, the ſame Houſe having, by another marriage, acquired the monarchy of Spain, became ſuddenly the terror of all Europe. For ſome time the Netherlands continued to flouriſh as a part of this vaſt empire; but on the change of religious tenets, which took place in conſequence of the preaching of Luther, this happy period began to draw towards a concluſion. Charles V. though in general he wiſhed for the improvement of the country, and was in many reſpects favourable to the inhabitants, yet could not bear that any of them ſhould profeſs the Proteſtant religion. On his abdication the Houſe of Auſtria was divided into two branches, the German and the Spaniſh; and the Netherlands fell to the lot of the latter. Philip II. no leſs bigotted, but leſs prudent than his father, not only raiſed a cruel perſecution againſt the Proteſtants, but invaded the privileges of the people, which had been for ſo long reſpected, and which were indeed the foundation of all their wealth. Finding himſelf oppoſed by his ſubjects, he ſent a great army into the Netherlands, under the command of the duke of Alva, by whom the conſtitution was entirely changed. New courts of juſtice were erected, and a new tribunal, before which even the nobility were compelled to appear, and which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the *Council of Blood*. New taxes were impoſed, and levied in the moſt unconſtitutional manner; at the ſame time that the dreadful tyranny of the Inquiſition was eſtabliſhed in its full force. By theſe intolerable grievances the inhabitants

were

were at laſt rouſed into action, and a general revolt againſt the Spaniards enſued.

When the Hollanders perceived matters about to come to extremities, they attempted to divert the ſtorm by a deputation to Madrid, in which they directed their complaints chiefly againſt the Inquiſition. The king, however, gave no ſatisfactory anſwer, and ordered the ducheſs of Parma, the governeſs, to proceed againſt the Proteſtants with the utmoſt ſeverity. A new oath of allegiance was impoſed, obliging all loyal ſubjects to regard as traitors and enemies thoſe whom the king ſhould proſcribe, while the duke of Alva entered the Netherlands with an army of 10,000 men, in order to enforce obedience. This produced ſuch an emigration, that the ducheſs ſent a meſſage to the king, requeſting him to allow her to reſign the government before ſhe ſhould be left alone in the country. This requeſt was readily granted, and the duke of Alva, an inhuman tyrant, made governor in her place.

The miſeries to which the people were reduced in conſequence of this appointment ſoon became intolerable. The prince of Orange had retired into Germany, where he engaged the emperor in behalf of his countrymen, and even induced him to ſend an ambaſſador to Philip on the ſubject, but to no purpoſe; on which he prepared for war. His own eſtate was by this time confiſcated, and the counts Hoorn and Egmont were ignominouſly executed; ſoon after which the prince began to commence hoſtilities. In the beginning matters wore an unfavourable aſpect; his firſt party ſent into Brabant was defeated, and the officers of another, who attempted to penetrate into Artois, were arreſted by order of Charles IX. of France. Theſe misfortunes were ſomewhat counterbalanced by the defeat of a party of Spaniards by Lewis of Naſſau, with the loſs of 600 men; which ſo much exaſperated the duke of Alva, that he aſſembled all his forces, and coming up with the prince, entirely defeated him.

No better fortune attended the prince of Orange himſelf, who had collected an army of 28,000 men; he was likewiſe vanquiſhed by the duke of Alva, after which his ſoldiers deſerted in ſuch numbers, that he found himſelf obliged to diſband his army entirely, and retire into Germany. His antagoniſt entered Bruſſels in triumph, and wreaked his vengeance on the miſerable inhabitants. All the priſoners taken during the laſt campaign were put to death, the friends of the prince of Orange perſecuted, and a ſcheme formed of totally extirpating the proteſtant religion. That he might thoroughly eſtabliſh the power of Philip over his ſubjects, the duke reſolved to build ſtrong fortreſſes in the principal cities throughout the country. He began with Amſterdam. The inhabitants complained and remonſtrated, but to no purpoſe. At Antwerp he added the moſt intolerable inſolence to his oppreſſion; cauſing his ſtatue to be erected, in the act of treading upon two other ſtatues, meant to repreſent the two eſtates of the Low Countries. The prince of Orange, in the mean time, was adviſed by Coligni, the French admiral, to fit out a ſquadron of privateers to diſtreſs the trade of the Spaniards. This ſcheme was put in execution with ſome ſucceſs, but in the end proved detrimental. For the crews of theſe veſſels, called by the French *Gueux*, or *Sea-beggars*, having ſoon diſſipated their acquired wealth, commenced pirates at large, waging war againſt their own country as well as others.

The duke of Alva, reſolving to go on as he had begun, impoſed the moſt intolerable taxes on the people of Bruſſels and other places, ſo that nothing

nothing but the abſolute ruin of the country ſeemed likely to be the event. The inhabitants of this city offered a ſubſidy of two millions of florins in lieu of the propoſed taxes; but it was refuſed, and the ſoldiers were ordered to hang all who refuſed to comply. But while they prepared to carry this cruel purpoſe into execution, they were ſuddenly interrupted by the news of the ſurrender of Briel in the iſland of Voorn, to one Lumey, who commanded a ſquadron of Gueux, and had in ſome meaſure retaliated the cruelties of the Catholic party, by executing all the prieſts he could find. This conqueſt was indeed very inconſiderable; nevertheleſs it excited an exceſſive joy among the Orange party, and greatly alarmed the duke of Alva. Withdrawing his forces, therefore, from Bruſſels, he ſent them againſt Briel; but they were defeated in the execution of their enterprize, and forced to retire to Beyerland.

The prince of Orange did not fail to improve his good fortune. Having cauſed the iſland of Voorn to be fortified, he quickly became maſter of the town of Delfshaben on the oppoſite ſide of the Maeſe. The Spaniards continued to render themſelves ſtill more deteſted by their abominable treachery and cruelty. The cities of Dordrecht and Rotterdam ſhut their gates againſt them; but Boſſu their commander, the ſame who was defeated at Briel, having obtained permiſſion to paſs through Rotterdam with his men divided into ſmall parties, began a general maſſacre of the inhabitants. Four hundred periſhed on this occaſion, the town was plundered, women raviſhed, and every inhumanity committed that could be imagined. This was ſucceeded by the revolt of Fluſhing in Zealand. Lumey continued to infeſt the Spaniards at ſea, and great quantities of arms and ammunition were purchaſed with the profits of the captures.

The bad ſucceſs of the duke of Alva in reducing the revolted provinces to ſubjection, having occaſioned his diſmiſſion from the government, the duke de Medina Cæli was appointed to ſucceed him, and brought with him a ſtrong ſquadron to check the inſolence of the Gueux. But the Zealanders, now become very ſtrong by ſea, ventured to attack this formidable enemy, and having entirely defeated him, carried off a booty of near a million of livres. On this the duke of Alva, who ſtill kept poſſeſſion of his military employments, ordered a ſtrong ſquadron to be fitted out at Amſterdam, while he prepared to oppoſe the prince of Orange, who was making great preparations in Germany. It was now too late, however, to think of reducing the Dutch to ſubjection by any means whatever. Moſt of the cities of Hainault declared for the prince. He was ſupported by the States General, and having met with great ſucceſs in recruiting his army in Germany, he took the cities of Ruremonde, Mechlin, Oudenarde, and Dendermonde; but could not prevent his ſoldiers from committing ſome barbarities, particularly maſſacring the popiſh prieſts, againſt whom they entertained the moſt invincible hatred. His ſpirits, however, were ſoon damped by the ſucceſs and cruelty of his enemies. Mons was taken by the duke of Alva, and the cities juſt reduced by the prince inveſted. Mechlin being in no condition to reſiſt, opened its gates; but the Spaniards refuſed to enter by them; chooſing rather to ſcale the walls, in order to give the appearance of its being taken by aſſault. This, they ſeem to have ſuppoſed, would juſtify the cruelties they had determined to exerciſe upon the inhabitants. Proteſtants and Papiſts were murdered without mercy, and the town pillaged; the booty being eſtimated at 400,000 florins. The

duke next diſpatched a general, named Frederic de Toledo, to begin the war in Holland, the province to which the prince of Orange had retired. By this general Guelderland and Zutphen were quickly reduced, after which he appeared before Waerden, and ſummoned it to ſurrender, and admit a garriſon. The burghers replied, that they were entruſted by the king with the defence of the place, and could not receive a military force without violating their privileges and engagements. Of this reſolute behaviour, however, they had ſoon cauſe to repent. The town was inſtantly inveſted, taken by ſurpriſe, and all the burghers ſlaughtered, after they had been aſſembled in the great church of the town to take the oaths of allegiance. A general maſſacre of the inhabitants followed. Infants, old men, women, and ſick people were butchered without diſtinction. The monſtrous barbarities exerciſed on this occaſion exaſperated the inhabitants throughout the whole country, ſo that they determined rather to die with arms in their hands, than ſubmit to ſuch tyrants.

In the mean time, the ſucceſſes of the Spaniards had inſpired a general terror throughout all the provinces, inſomuch, that moſt of them refuſed to ſtand to the agreement into which they had entered for their mutual defence. Holland and Zealand alone remained faithful to their engagements, and determined to ſacrifice every thing for the ſake of liberty. Undiſmayed by the dreadful examples they had before their eyes, the people of Haerlem reſolved to ſtand a ſiege; but after manifeſting much more courage than ſkill in military affairs, they were obliged to ſurrender; though upon terms greatly more favourable than could have been expected. Some of thoſe who had been moſt active in their oppoſition to the Spaniſh government were put to death; but the reſt were pardoned on taking an oath of fidelity, and paying 15,000 florins. But all this bad ſucceſs was counterbalanced by the exploits performed at ſea, and the great number of victories gained over the Spaniſh armaments. Many ſhips were taken out of the harbour of Antwerp, in ſpite of the governor's utmoſt vigilance. Middleburg and Rammekins were blocked up by the Zealanders, who defeated a ſquadron ſent againſt them under the command of admiral d'Avila. Enraged at this diſgrace, he equipped a new fleet ſtronger than the former, but met with the ſame fate. Moſt of his ſhips were ſunk or taken; however, with the remainder, he made a ſhift to puſh into Middleburg harbour, and by this means relieved the garriſon, who were ready to be famiſhed for want of proviſions. On his return to Antwerp, he was again encountered and again defeated; nor did the grand fleet of the Spaniards meet with better fortune, being utterly defeated by the Zealanders, and never afterwards daring to look them in the face.

After the reduction of Haerlem, the good fortune of the Spaniards ſeemed to forſake them by land as well as by ſea. Frederic de Toledo, ſo renowned for his ſucceſs and his cruelty, reſolved to undertake the ſiege of Alcmar. The town was garriſoned only by 800 ſoldiers and 200 burghers, while the army of the aſſailants amounted to 16,000 men. Nevertheleſs, ſuch was the deſperate courage inſpired by the dreadful examples of Spaniſh inhumanity, that they reſolved to endure every extremity rather than ſubmit; and to this they were encouraged by a moſt pathetic letter from the prince of Orange Frederic, however, puſhed on the ſiege with great vigour, and, with his uſual inhumanity, cauſed the inhabitants of Haerlem work in the trenches, and ſuſtain the fire of their friends and countrymen. A breach was ſoon made in the walls,

and

an aſſault given, but without ſucceſs, though the bulk of the Spaniſh army ſuſtained the attack. The garriſon were informed by a Spaniſh officer whom they had taken priſoner, that the duke of Alva had given orders to raiſe the ſiege in caſe the third aſſault proved unſucceſsful; but, if otherwiſe, to put all to the ſword. By this account, their courage was inflamed to the utmoſt; the Spaniards were foiled in every attempt, they were driven from the breach with ſuch ſlaughter, that they at laſt refuſed to mount the walls, and the ſiege was raiſed to the great joy of the prince of Orange, and the no leſs mortification of his antagoniſt.

Theſe bad ſucceſſes at laſt determined the duke of Alva to quit a country where he was likely to meet with nothing but diſgrace and diſappointment. He was ſucceeded by Don Lewis de Requeſnes, who had orders to puſh on the war with the utmoſt vigour. The States, notwithſtanding their good fortune hitherto, were in the greateſt diſtreſs, and indeed all their former good fortune ſeemed now to be overbalanced by the defeat and death of prince Lewis of Naſſau; ſo that, had matters been properly conducted on the part of the Spaniards, it is poſſible they might ſtill have gained their point. For the preſent, however, they were prevented from purſuing their ſucceſs by a mutiny among their troops, who formally depoſed all their old officers, appointed new ones, and choſe a new commander in chief for themſelves. The diſtreſſes of the governor from this tumult were augmented by a victory at ſea, gained by the Zealanders, in which 40 Spaniſh veſſels were almoſt all taken or deſtroyed. Philip then attempted to retrieve matters by publiſhing an act of grace, but it was too late; and no conceſſion on his part would be attended to. Requeſnes then determined to conclude the campaign with ſome notable exploit; and with this view laid ſiege to Leyden. As the adjacent country was laid under water, and the city only acceſſible by boats, which had to force a paſſage through the enemy, the inhabitants ſoon began to ſuffer for want of proviſions, and would probably have been obliged to ſurrender, had not a ſouth-weſt wind fortunately ariſen, which drove the inundation againſt the works of the beſiegers with ſuch violence, that 500 of them were drowned, and the reſt obliged to give over the enterpriſe.

The Dutch had now contended for ſix years, viz. from the year 1568 to 1574, againſt the whole power of the Spaniſh monarchy; but ſo unequal was the conteſt, that, notwithſtanding the ſucceſs they had met with, it became apparently impoſſible for them to gain their point ultimately, without the aſſiſtance of ſome foreign power. They began therefore ſeriouſly to think of making an offer of their country to ſome Proteſtant prince, who might be able to defend them againſt the tyranny of the Spaniards. For this purpoſe they addreſſed themſelves to queen Elizabeth of England; but ſhe declined it for political reaſons. A negociation was next ſet on foot for this purpoſe with France; but this alſo coming to nothing, the States were rendered almoſt totally deſperate, when they were once more relieved by an accident. This was a dreadful mutiny which took place among the Spaniſh troops, and produced ſuch confuſion, that the Prince of Orange and the States had time to recover themſelves, and even made themſelves maſters of Ghent. A dreadful diſaſter, however, took place at Antwerp, of which the Hollanders next endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves; for, having made a vigorous attack on the citadel, ſome of

the mutineers found means to get in to the aſſiſtance of their countrymen, by which means the troops of the States General were repulſed, and the city was pillaged in the moſt cruel manner for three days; during which time an immenſe quantity of booty was carried off, to the amount, as is reported, of no leſs than four millions in caſh, beſides a vaſt quantity of rich merchandiſe, at the ſame time that great part of the houſes were reduced to aſhes. By ſuch a dreadful calamity both Proteſtants and Papiſts were united in one general confederacy, and co-operated with the Prince of Orange and States in taking the moſt effectual meaſures for the public ſafety.

The firſt ſtep now taken on the part of the Dutch was to ſolicit aſſiſtance from queen Elizabeth, which ſhe did not refuſe, though ſhe had not thought proper to take them formally under her protection. A temporary pacification alſo, called, from the place where it was concluded, the Pacification of Ghent, was agreed to by the new Spaniſh governor, Don John of Auſtria; which interval of eaſe was occupied by the States in the moſt proper manner. In a very ſhort time, however, hoſtilities were recommenced, with more vigour than ever; and, in 1578, the States entered into a formal treaty with queen Elizabeth, by which that princeſs obliged herſelf to advance L. 100,000 Sterling for their behoof, and to aſſiſt them with an army of 5000 foot and 1000 horſe. The loan was to be repaid in eight months, with intereſt; ſome towns were likewiſe to be put into the hands of the Engliſh, and the States were to be at the expence of tranſporting the troops, and to take them into pay as ſoon as they arrived. After the concluſion of this treaty, however, Elizabeth did not adhere to her agreement, but, inſtead of Engliſh troops, propoſed to ſend count Palatine, with 3000 foot and 3000 horſe, refuſing at the ſame time to pay the money ſtipulated, until they ſhould agree to the alteration. The delay thus occaſioned proved detrimental to the Hollanders, and the Spaniards gained ſeveral advantages before the arrival of the promiſed ſuccours. But theſe were more than balanced by the loſs of the city of Amſterdam, which about this time concluded a treaty with the prince of Orange. A revolution alſo took place in Guelderland, which proved very beneficial to the common cauſe; John of Naſſau, brother to the prince, having found means to obtain the chief direction of the province, and thus being enabled to co-operate with his brother in the moſt effectual manner. Another revolution likewiſe took place in Groningen, which proved conſiderably beneficial; ſo that the prince of Orange, now finding his ſtrength conſiderably augmented, formed a deſign of uniting more cloſely the provinces which were immediately under his juriſdiction. Accordingly, on the 23d of January 1579, deputies from the provinces of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Frieſland, Groningen Overyſſel, and Gelderland, met at Utrecht, and ſigned the alliance, ever ſince known by the name of the Union of Utrecht, and which was the firſt foundation of the preſent republic of Holland. By this treaty it was not meant to ſeparate from the other ten Provinces, but to preſerve the pacification of Ghent inviolate, and more effectually to ſecure the liberty ſtipulated by it. The alliance was ſo much approved, that in a very ſhort time it was acceded to by the cities of Ghent, Nmeguen, Arnheim, Leeſwarden, Venlo, Ypres, Antwerp, Breda, with ſeveral others. Thus the foundations of a new ſtate were laid,

Foundation of the Dutch republic.

but

but in a very uncertain and dangerous condition, and which was expreſſed by the firſt coin ſtruck after the Union, on which was repreſented, a ſhip without ſails, toſſed by a ſtormy ocean, with this motto, *Incertum quo fata ferunt.* "We know not the place of our deſtination."

The erection of the new republic was followed by a greater exertion than uſual of the Spaniſh power to reduce them to obedience. The duke of Parma, who now directed their operations, diſpatched an army of 8000 men againſt the town of Marſein, which having reduced, his generals cauſed the governor to be hanged, and 45 of the principal citizens to be tortured to death. Maeſtricht in a little time ſhared the ſame fate. It had made a very extraordinary defence, notwithſtanding the weakneſs of its fortifications, and ſlender ſtate of the garriſon. But no conſiderations of valour could inſpire the cruel aſſailants with the leaſt ſpark of generoſity. For three days the city became a ſcene of the moſt dreadful horror and devaſtation, notwithſtanding all the endeavours of the general to reſtrain the fury of his ſoldiers. In a ſhort time the provinces were reduced to a moſt deplorable ſituation. The duke of Parma was by far the moſt formidable antagoniſt they ever had, and what trifling advantages they gained were owing either to accident, or to an illneſs with which he was ſeized. Several of the provinces contributed nothing to the common cauſe, while others paid but a ſmall proportion of the taxes agreed upon. The army had large arrears due, and lived at diſcretion; in a manner more oppreſſing to the people than even the taxes which would have been neceſſary to pay them regularly. The people clamoured againſt the States, who blamed the officers, while the latter recriminated on the States. Thus all was in confuſion, and nothing could have prevented the ſubverſion of the newly erected republic, but an equal diſtreſs on the part of the Spaniards. This was ſo great, that the duke of Parma requeſted leave to reſign his command, and return to his own country, but the Spaniards knew his value too well to part with him at this time.

The States, however, notwithſtanding their inability to defend themſelves, did not entertain the leaſt thought of ſubmiſſion. They again made an offer of their country to Elizabeth, which ſhe again declined. The prince of Orange renewed the treaty with the duke of Anjou; but the general hatred againſt this prince was ſo great, on account of the ſhare his mother had in the maſſacre of Paris, that the people could by no means be brought to think of him. However, at laſt theſe objections were got over, and, in the year 1580, the Seven United Provinces formally renounced their allegiance to Spain, and owned the duke of Anjou for their ſovereign. The Dutch authors are at pains to qualify this tranſaction, and to ſhew that the power was really to devolve upon the prince of Orange. But be this as it will, the treaty was ſo highly offenſive to Philip, that, attributing the whole to the prince of Orange, he confiſcated his eſtate, charged him with ingratitude, and offered a reward of 25,000 crowns to any perſon who ſhould bring him, dead or alive; the ſame reward was promiſed to his heirs, in caſe the perſon ſhould periſh in the enterpriſe, and he declared all thoſe proſcribed, their dignities aboliſhed, and their eſtates confiſcated, who ſhould adhere to the obnoxious treaty.

Duke of Anjou choſen ſovereign of the United Provinces.

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In the mean time the duke of Anjou prepared to take poſſeſſion of his new dominion. In his way thither he relieved the town of Cambray; but having unluckily projected a ſcheme of marrying queen Elizabeth, he undertook a voyage to England, from whence he did not return till the year 1582, during which time the Spaniards gained conſiderable advantages. His entrance into Antwerp was exceedingly ſplendid. A theatre was erected before the walls of the citadel, in which was placed a chair of ſtate, covered with cloth of gold. On this he was ſeated, and heard the conditions of the treaty read to him, after which he was declared duke of Brabant. He ſoon found, however, that he was unable to maintain himſelf in his new dignity. The prince of Orange was aſſaſſinated, in conſequence of the proſcription already mentioned; the duke of Parma carried every thing before him; while the unhappy duke of Anjou was ſo much oppreſſed by vexation and diſappointment, that he retired to France, and died of grief.

The States at laſt obtain an independency.

Theſe diſaſters had almoſt finiſhed the affairs of the Hollanders; the only provinces who ſhewed any reſolution in the time of the preſent calamity were thoſe Zealand and Holland. Theſe endeavoured to ſhewtheir gratitude to the late ſtadtholder William, by electing his ſon, prince Maurice, their ſtadtholder, who, though only 18 years of age, ſhewed himſelf perfectly well qualified for this difficult ſtation. It is more than probable, however, that the States would have been obliged to ſubmit at laſt, had not the diſaſter of the Spaniſh armada in 1588 rendered Philip unable to carry on the war with the ſame vigour as formerly. From this time, therefore, the affairs of the Dutch began to flouriſh; and in 1609 the king of Spain found himſelf obliged to conclude a peace with them, and renounce all authority over their country. War, however, was renewed in 1621, and continued with the utmoſt obſtinacy for 27 years; but at the general pacification in 1648, the independency of the States was confirmed, and has never ſince been diſputed.

The iſſue of the war was leſs fortunate to the other ten provinces; for theſe, devoted to the Catholic religion, conſented to return to their allegiance, after having waged war for more than 20 years, on condition that their former rights and privileges ſhould be confirmed, and preſerved inviolate; to which Philip was at laſt obliged to conſent. Thus the provinces were diſunited, and a final ſeparation took place between the northern ones, ſince known by the name of the States of Holland, and thoſe to the ſouthward. The latter were for ſome time diſmembered from the Spaniſh monarchy, and formed a diſtinct principality by themſelves; but, after the death of Albert and Iſabella, were reunited under Philip IV. and Charles II. the laſt princes of the Auſtrian line who enjoyed the crown of Spain.

By this time, however, the Netherlands were greatly fallen from that ſtate of wealth and ſplendor for which they had been ſo long renowned. In the conteſt with Philip the cities had been plundered, and great numbers of the inhabitants had removed with their effects into other countries; and, on the final eſtabliſhment of the Catholic religion, the number of emigrants was ſtill more augmented. Theſe diſaſters were ſtill farther increaſed by the rivalſhip of Holland, which had now acquired an acceſſion of ſtrength in proportion to the diminution of that of the other provinces; for great numbers of the emigrants from the ſouthern parts had fled into that country. By the treaty of Munſter, at which time

time the independency of the Dutch was finally acknowledged by Spain, the extent of the ſouthern provinces was diminiſhed, and the commerce of Antwerp, as has been already mentioned, was ruined through the jealouſy of Amſterdam. In a ſhort time alſo the French, under that aſpiring monarch, Louis XIV. threatened not only the ſouthern provinces, but the newly erected republic of Holland alſo with deſtruction.

At this time the republic was torn with diviſions, in ſuch a manner, that the invaſion of the French appeared exceedingly formidable. Lewis had prepared an army of no fewer than 100,000 men, with whom he determined to overrun their whole country. Theſe were commanded by generals ſo expert, that not the ſmalleſt hope ſeemed to remain for the unfortunate republicans. Their towns were taken ſo faſt, and the progreſs of the French was ſo rapid, that the only reſource they had was to overflow their country, by which means all the provinces of the Netherlands appeared one vaſt lake of water, with towns riſing out of it like iſlands. In three months time upwards of 50 towns and caſtles were taken, and the provinces of Overyſſel, Gelderland, and Utrecht reduced. But in the midſt of this career of ſucceſs, the French king inſenſibly ruined his army by the continual drains from it to garriſon the conquered places, which proved ultimately the cauſe of his miſcarriage. The Dutch in their extremity conferred the ſupreme power on the Prince of Orange, afterwards William III. of Britain. The States General obliged thoſe of Holland and Weſt Frieſland to unite the dignity of Stadtholder to thoſe of Captain-General and High Admiral, with which he was already inveſted. Such pathetic remonſtrances were alſo made to Charles II. of England, that he remonſtrated with Louis on his proceedings, and declared that he would break the alliance if the French monarch ſhould penetrate farther into the Dutch territories. Louis, on this, conſented to propoſe terms of peace, but ſo hard, that they were rejected with diſdain, and to this the Dutch were the more encouraged at preſent, by the aſſiſtance they expected from the elector of Brandenburg. Their internal diviſions, however, continued; and in a tumult excited between the party of the prince of Orange, and that of the Penſionaries, the de Witts, the latter were cruelly murdered. The prince of Orange daily ingratiated himſelf more and more with the people, and by his activity, with the aſſiſtance of the German prince already mentioned, the armies of France were ſuddenly obliged to evacuate the provinces they had conquered.

On the revolution, which happened in 1747, William IV father to the preſent prince, was elected Stadtholder. Being in a declining ſtate of health, his principal care ſeems to have been to provide a proper perſon as counſellor to his wife after his death, which he ſhortly expected, as well as guardian to his infant ſon, who was born in 1748. Such a perſon he imagined he had found in Louis duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, at that time engaged in the ſervice of the emperor, but who, in conſequence of his propoſals, entered into that of the States in the year 1750. The ſtadtholder obtained for him the commiſſion of field marſhal of the republic, with ſome particular honours and emoluments. He diſcharged his office apparently with great fidelity, and when the preſent Stadtholder, William V. aſſumed the government in 1766, was prevailed upon to retain his old ſtation of field-marſhal, appearing always to be his intimate friend as well as counſellor. For a conſiderable time matters ſeemed to go on very proſperouſly with the new Stadtholder; nor was the internal tranquillity of the States diſturbed till ſome time after

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the commencement of the war betwixt Britain and the American colonies. Before this time, indeed, there had exiſted, in Holland, two parties ſimilar to thoſe which commonly exiſt in free ſtates, and which here may be called the monarchical and ariſtocratical. The former, by whom we mean the adherents of the prince of Orange, ſhewed themſelves on all occaſions ready to adhere to the intereſts of Great Britain, while the latter were equally attached to thoſe of France. Thus, in caſes of war betwixt Britain and France, the ſtadtholder found himſelf in a very diſagreeable ſituation, which never was more conſpicuous than on the preſent occaſion. The Dutch were now ſtrongly tempted to take part with the American colonies, both on account of the reſemblance of their ſituation when contending with Spain, and likewiſe from motives of intereſt, in order to ſhare part of that trade and commerce which had been long ſuppoſed to contribute ſo largely to the aggrandiſement of Britain. The latter indeed thought that ſhe had the ſtrongeſt claims upon the gratitude of the Dutch; but it is very rare that motives of gratitude, among nations, get the better of thoſe of intereſt. With the Dutch indeed this avaricious diſpoſition is ſaid to be exceedingly prevalent, inſomuch, that when Louis XIV. was threatening to ſubvert their republic entirely, he was regularly ſupplied with gunpowder and ammunition by their own merchants.

With ſuch a people it is not to be ſuppoſed that the obligations they owed to Britain, or to any other power, would long be remembered, when motives of intereſt ſtood in the way. The city of Amſterdam took the lead in the buſineſs, and as early as the 4th of September 1778, the outlines of a treaty with the American States were drawn up by John Lee (formerly an alderman of London, but now commiſſioner for the Congreſs) on the one part, and John de Neuville on the other.

It was not, however, till the month of Auguſt 1780, that there was a proſpect of the treaty being finiſhed, when Mr Henry Laurens, late preſident of the Congreſs, was appointed ambaſſador from the Congreſs to the United Provinces. Several other cauſes of difference happening at the ſame time, the States were firſt declared by the court of Britain to be only a neutral power, and at laſt war was formally commenced betwixt the two nations. The declaration of war on the part of Great Britain took place in conſequence of the capture of Mr Laurens as he proceeded in his voyage from America to Holland, in order to finiſh the treaty above mentioned.

The ſituation of the States at this time was very unfavourable for a war, and Britain is ſuppoſed to have taken advantage of their want of preparation, and to have attacked them rather unfairly from piratical motives, inſtead of thoſe of honour, or injured pride. In conſequence of this it proved exceedingly diſgraceful on the part of the Dutch. All their ſettlements in the Weſt Indies fell into the hands of the Britiſh without reſiſtance; their ſhips were captured, and trade ruined; while the diſaſters of the war excited the animoſity of the two factions againſt each other to the higheſt degree; the ariſtocratic party inſiſting that the little force the nation poſſeſſed had not been properly directed againſt the enemy, while the monarchical party accuſed their antagoniſts of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it. As yet, however, no direct attack was made upon the ſtadtholder. The popular vengeance was directed entirely againſt the field-marſhal; againſt whom a memorial was preſented by the regency

of Amſterdam; and though he juſtified himſelf in ſuch a manner that the States General paſſed ſome reſolutions in his favour, he was attacked in the moſt virulent manner by lampoons ſatirical prints, and libels; until theſe alſo were prohibited by the States. This operated nothing in his favour with the ariſtocratical party. It was inſinuated among the vulgar that he had an exceſſive and unlawful attachment to the Britiſh nation; nay, that he had been bribed by the court of London. On the 12th of March 1782, an addreſs was preſented to the prince of Orange, enforcing that of the regency of Amſterdam, and intreating the ſtadtholder to perſuade the prince of Brunſwic to withdraw himſelf out of the dominions of the States. This was rejected by the prince of Orange, who replied in general, that the field-marſhal was entirely innocent of the crimes laid to his charge. The campaign of 1782, however, was looked upon to be ſo extremely diſgraceful to the States, that the clamours againſt the miniſter were renewed with greater violence than ever. In 1781 the ſpirits of the people had been ſomewhat raiſed by the engagement betwixt admiral Zoutman and Sir Hyde Parker, by which it appeared that the ancient valour of the Dutch was by no means declined. But in 1782 the plan of operations was entirely fruſtrated. It had been propoſed to ſend out a ſquadron of ten ſhips of the line to reinforce the combined fleets of France and Spain in the harbour of Breſt. This ſquadron was not got ready until after many vexatious delays: however, by the middle of Auguſt they were ſuppoſed to be in readineſs, and had orders to ſail. But, inſtead of proceeding on their voyage, as was expected by the public, they remained on the coaſt of Holland until the ſeaſon for action was entirely gone. Thus the combined fleets were obliged to ſail without them; and in this manner lord Howe was allowed to accompliſh the relief of Gibraltar. The French were exaſperated at this breach of engagement on the part of the republic; and the ſuſpicions of treachery on the part of the ſtadtholder were greatly ſtrengthened. A memorial was preſented by the French ambaſſador at the Hague, complaining bitterly of the inactivity of the Dutch navy, and demanding a ſtrict inquiry into the cauſes of it; and, in conſequence of this memorial, the States demanded a conference with the ſtadtholder. The latter entered upon a formal juſtification of himſelf; and the officers of the fleet declared themſelves unwilling to ſerve in a ſituation that expoſed them to ſo much injuſtice and cenſure. They affirmed, that they had not failed in obedience to their orders only in conſequence of not being accommodated with naval ſtores and proviſions for ſo long a voyage. The admiralty of Amſterdam, who found themſelves affected by this accuſation, gave a formal anſwer to the complaints of the officers. Soon after this, theſe tumults began by which the republic was for ſome time ſo much infeſted. The prince of Orange had publiſhed a memorial in juſtification of his own conduct, which was very indifferently received; however, an addreſs was prepared and ſigned by ſome of the inhabitants of the Hague, expreſſing their entire approbation of his government; but the prince, perceiving how diſagreeable this would be to the generality of the people, ſent a meſſage to the parties concerned, requeſting that it might not be preſented. The next day, December 6th 1782, about 60 perſons aſſembled in a tumultuous manner, paraded the ſtreets with orange cockades, and at night repaired in a body to the exhibition of a *feu de joie* and fireworks, in the external ſquare of the palace, inſulting, at the ſame time, ſuch as had diſtinguiſhed themſelves

by their oppoſition to the ſtadtholder. An extraordinary aſſembly of the States was held on this inſurrection, at which the prince declared that he looked upon it only to have been an amuſement of the citizens, and therefore had given no orders to interrupt them: but at the ſame time he requeſted that they would ſuppreſs two newſpapers which contained an obnoxious letter reſpecting himſelf. Neither of theſe declarations proved ſatisfactory. Thirteen towns, beſides thoſe of Amſterdam and Dort, voted for the proſecution of the rioters; who, finding themſelves thus in danger, took refuge in the duchy of Cleves, which makes part of the kingdom of Pruſſia.

Theſe proceedings of the ariſtocratical party in Holland were highly diſagreeable to his Pruſſian Majeſty, who was connected by marriage with the prince of Orange, and on ſome other accounts looked upon himſelf as a guardian of the conſtitution of Holland. Inſtead of delivering up the fugitives, therefore, when they were demanded of him, he exhorted the States not to ſuffer themſelves to be precipitated into haſty reſolutions by groundleſs jealouſies, &c. and ſoon after, a memorial was preſented to the ſame purpoſe by his ambaſſador at the Hague. To theſe exhortations very little regard was paid by the ariſtocratic party. They were too well aſſured of the protection of France to be in the leaſt uneaſy about the event. The States of Holland took upon them not only to reverſe a ſentence of the high court of war, but to ſuſpend the court itſelf; a meaſure which proved exceedingly offenſive to the ſtadtholder, and againſt which he preſented a ſtrong remonſtrance.

Thus matters ſtood at the concluſion of the general peace in 1783, after which the animoſities between the two parties broke forth with much more violence than ever. The ariſtocratic party determined to ruin the popularity, and diminiſh the prerogatives of the prince of Orange; the miſcarriage of the fleet at Breſt was again reſumed, and every poſſible method taken to make the public believe that he was the author of it. The very circumſtance of ſome of his captains having been ſent away, upon ſome diſtant expeditions, gave an opportunity of blackening his reputation, by drawing out the inquiry to an extraordinary length. At the ſame time large bodies of armed men were enrolled throughout the different provinces and cities of the republic, under the title of volunteers; and matters were managed in ſuch a manner as to make them entirely at the devotion of the republican party; and being probably paid by them alſo, they were thus the more ready to enter into their ſchemes. They uſed every endeavour to ſupport the authority they now aſſumed, by ingratiating themſelves with the vulgar; and among other methods taken for this purpoſe, they engroſſed to themſelves the direction of ſome Dutch prints, and diſſeminated libels and paſquinades in great abundance. It was alledged that the prince of Orange had been harbouring ſome very deep ſchemes of becoming abſolute, and reducing the authority of the legiſlative aſſemblies to nothing; and his princeſs was accuſed as the author of theſe unconſtitutional and tyrannical proceedings.

The king of Pruſſia now interfered, and addreſſed a paper to the States General on the ſubject of theſe libels, but little or no regard was paid to it; and though he pointed out two publiſhers of newſ-papers as objects of puniſhment, both of them were acquitted, after being tried for form's ſake. At this time, however, the republic was threatened with a more dangerous enemy than even the king of Pruſſia, viz the emperor

ror of Germany, who, from the exhauſted ſtate of ſeveral of the European powers, ſeemed to have a favourable opportunity of accompliſhing his ambitious deſigns. In the year 1781 he had been allowed to demoliſh the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended ſo deſperately in the time of queen Anne, and he now ſeemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their reſpective nations was propoſed to the States; but before this could take place, he began to commit ſome acts of hoſtility, and extend his dominions a little by way of preliminary. Two ſmall forts, St Donat and St Paul, were ſeized upon, as well as ſome part of the marſhes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negociations, he alſo demanded that the Dutch guardſhip ſhould be removed from before fort Lillo, in acknowledgement that one of the prerogatives of his Imperial majeſty was the free navigation of the Scheld, ſome miles farther towards the ſea than it was at that time enjoyed by his ſubjects. This being complied with, the negociations were opened at Bruſſels on the 24th of April 1784, when ſeveral other demands of ſmall portions of territory, and little ſums of money were made; the moſt material requiſition being the town of Maeſtricht, with its territory. For ſome time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters ſeemed faſt tending towards an open rupture. On the 23d of Auguſt, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commiſſioners at Bruſſels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maeſtricht, in conſideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheld in both its branches to the ſea; and in token of his confidence in the good intentions of the States, he determined to conſider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any inſult on his flag in the execution of theſe purpoſes he would conclude to be a direct act of hoſtility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic.

To this memorial the Dutch returned an abſolute and peremptory refuſal, but the emperor continued inflexible. Early in October a veſſel was ſent from Antwerp to make an experiment whether the paſſage was open or not. The inhabitants teſtified the greateſt joy on its departure, and fancied they already ſaw their city ariſe in all its former glory. On the arrival of the ſhip at the fort of Lillo, however, after ſome admonitions on the part of the Dutch, the fort poured a whole broad ſide into it, but without killing any perſon, and only wounding a ſingle man. The Auſtrians then ſurrendered, and the veſſel, being returned to Antwerp, was received with throwing of ſtones, and every other appearance of contempt and indignation.

Preparations were now made for war on both ſides, the Imperial ambaſſador was recalled from the Hague, and the Dutch had recourſe to their uſual method in caſes of danger, viz. that of cutting the dykes and opening the ſluices in the neighbourhood of Lillo, and thus laying the country under water. But while matters ſeemed thus to be haſtening towards a criſis, the king of France wrote a letter to the emperor, in which he offered to become a mediator in the affair, requeſting at the ſame time that he would liſten to the voice of reaſon and moderation, and not urge the difference to an extremity. But though his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty thus condeſcended to intreat, he ſhewed that more active meaſures would be reſolved upon in caſe the emperor ſhould prove inflexible.

An army was formed under the command of Marſhal Broglio and the Count de Stainville in the neighbourhood of Luxemburg. Other powers alſo interfered; the empreſs of Ruſſia preſented a memorial to the States in favour of the emperor, while the king of Pruſſia ſeemed to be making preparations for aſſiſting the Dutch. Thus the whole of Europe ſeemed ready once more to be deluged with blood; but the emperor, alarmed at the formidable appearances, quickly began to liſten to terms of accommodation. He receded from his demand on the Scheld, but inſiſted on his right to the city of Maeſtricht, to which he now added a demand of examplary ſatisfaction for the inſult abovementioned offered to his flag at Lillo. For a conſiderable time he adhered to his demand on Maeſtricht; but at laſt, finding that it would not be complied with, and determined not to engage in a war, he conſented to accept of a compenſation in money. It was likewiſe a principal point with him that a deputation from the States ſhould wait upon him at Vienna, in order to apologize for the inſult that had been offered to his flag at Lillo; and with this the Dutch thought proper to comply. The deputation accordingly ſet out on the 23d of June, and accompliſhed the purpoſe of their embaſſy on the 25th of July; which put an end to all hoſtile appearances betwixt the republic and his Imperial Majeſty.

All this time the diſorders, which had begun to prevail in the provinces, went on and increaſed. The inſtitution of the corps of volunteers, which had been introduced almoſt at the ſame time throughout the different cities, was oppoſed in ſome places. A tumult took place on that account in the city of Rotterdam, and the volunteers augmented the general diſguſt againſt them by firing on the rioters. The regency attempted to pacify the people by ſuſpending the meetings and exerciſes of the volunteers, but in vain; the populace roſe upon them a ſhort time after, tore their ſtandard in pieces, and committed ſeveral other outrages. In other places matters went ſtill worſe. The defection of the Britiſh American colonies ſeems to have diffuſed a ſpirit of republicaniſm all over Europe. The leaders of the party againſt the ſtadtholder had argued much on the folly of ſubmitting to the power and influence of one man, and ſtill more of the abſurdity of ſuffering him to uſurp an abſolute power in a free ſtate. In doing this they were obliged frequently to ſpeak of the origin of government, the natural rights of mankind; and, in ſhort, to talk much in the ſame ſtile with the Americans at the beginning of their defection from Britain. The hints thrown out in the courſe of theſe diſputes were attended to by the common people; and they now began to aſſociate, and take up arms, with a view to aſſert their own rights if occaſion ſhould require. Thus the ariſtocratical party began to loſe ground, and the numerous bodies of armed citizens ſeemed better diſpoſed to obey the commands of the people than of the magiſtrates. The firſt ſteps were taken towards the regular formation of a democratical party in the city of Utrecht. A petition was ſigned about the end of the year 1783 by 2243 heads of families, demanding the abolition of that kind of regency which had been inſtituted by William III. by which the ſtadtholder was allowed an almoſt unlimited power of moulding the magiſtracies and governments of the cities according to his own pleaſure. An addreſs was alſo preſented to the prince of Orange himſelf, endeavouring to convince him that his prerogative was too extenſive, and pointing out what he ought to be ſatisfied with, as well as what were the true and proper

privileges

privileges of the inhabitants; and this addreſs was ſigned by 725 of the moſt reſpectable burghers of Utrecht. Theſe proceedings were highly applauded by the magiſtrates, who inſtantly proceeded to comply with the deſire of the burghers, by filling up ſome vacancies in the ſenate, without any regard to the regulations of 1674. This conduct immediately produced a warm remonſtrance from the prince of Orange to the States; however, the latter appeared to have been productive of no good effect; for, in three months after, a proclamation was publiſhed by the regency, and copied by the two cities of Amersfort and Wyk, inviting the citizens, burghers, and houſe-holders, ſeverally to propoſe their ideas for a plan of reformation. Two ſenators were named by the regency of Utrecht to receive the propoſals; and the provincial ſtates, in concert with the magiſtracy, choſe a committee of nine perſons out of their body, by whom the projects that might be propoſed ſhould be ultimately examined. At the ſame time, a number of burghers, to the amount of twelve hundred, united to chooſe 27 delegates, who might co-operate with the committee of the ſenate in this important deliberation. In the mean time, the regency of Wyk, like that of Utrecht, proceeded to exerciſe the ſame right of filling up vacancies, without conſulting the ſtadtholder.

While theſe matters were going forward, the field-marſhal prince of Brunſwic took upon him to ſtop a meſſenger diſpatched by the States to the town of Maeſtricht, by which imprudent behaviour he became the ſubject of their animadverſions. It had long been ſuſpected that the prince of Orange had made promiſes to him inconſiſtent with the conſtitution of the country; and it was even ſaid, that ſome writings to this purpoſe had been executed. On the preſent occaſion, therefore, the States deputed three of their members to wait upon him, to have a conference concerning this paper, together with ſome other complaints againſt the field-marſhal. The prince refuſed to anſwer their queſtions, but promiſed to publiſh the paper in queſtion in a few days. On its appearance it was found to contain a promiſe, on the part of the ſtadtholder, to protect and indemnify the field marſhal from any charges which might at a future time be brought againſt him. The States therefore now thought themſelves juſtifiable in the moſt rigorous proceedings againſt the prince of Brunſwic. The States of Frieſland, who, in ſeveral former inſtances, had manifeſted a great inclination to oppoſe the ſtadtholder, declared the paper unconſtitutional, of no authority, and void: they demanded that the marſhal ſhould depart out of their territories, allowing him, however, to retain his appointments and emoluments. This reſolution of Frieſland was immediately followed by the province of Holland. The States of Gelderland, on the other hand, who had all along taken the part of the prince of Orange, wrote him a letter of thanks for having communicated the paper, aſſuring him that they had found nothing in it but what was perfectly conſtitutional and ſalutary. As the ſtadtholder did not immediately think proper to give up his miniſter, theſe proceedings of the States were followed by deputations from the towns of Dort, Haarlem, Amſterdam, and Rotterdam, requeſting him to comply with the wiſhes of the nation, and to lay his injunctions on the prince of Brunſwic to reſign. This being alſo refuſed, the States of Holland at laſt came to the reſolution of diſmiſſing him their ſervice, commanding him to withdraw out of their territories, and directing the troops of the province

vince not to obey him. In this the States of the different provinces were not unanimous; but the field-marſhal, wearied of the conteſt, at laſt freed the people from all trouble with regard to him, by reſigning his employments, on the 14th of October 1784. After this reſignation, however, he withdrew himſelf no farther from the Dutch territories than Aix-la-Chapelle; nor would he, though ſtrongly ſolicited by his nephew, the reigning Duke of Brunſwic, proceed for the capital of Wolfenbuttle. In this exile he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by an extraordinary attention to the Imperial troops, whom he would often attend for two years together in the utmoſt ſeverity of winter, though he was at that time near ſeventy years of age. This apparent attachment to the enemies of the ſtate could not but inflame the animoſities of the Hollanders againſt him to the utmoſt. In the month of February 1785 an information was laid before the States General, by the Rhingrave of Salm, an officer in the Dutch ſervice, of a deſign to betray the town of Maeſtricht into the hands of his Imperial Majeſty; and, on being preſſed on the ſubject, this officer confeſſed that his information came from the king of Pruſſia. This officious behaviour of the Rhingrave greatly chagrined his Pruſſian Majeſty; however, he was obliged, to acknowledge that he had communicated ſome ſuſpicious circumſtances relating to this affair, which immediately rendered it of ſufficient conſequence to ſet on foot an accurate inveſtigation, tho' it was ſaid that the ſearch was now made too late.

In the courſe of the proceedings relative to this buſineſs, Mr Van Slype, the Dutch reſident at Maeſtricht, was arreſted, on account of a correſpondence diſcovered between him and the prince of Brunſwic; but, on the moſt accurate inveſtigation, nothing treaſonable could be detected; in conſequence of which he was ſet at liberty, after having been confined for ſome months. On his return to Maeſtricht he was received with ſuch congratulations as demonſtrated how much convinced the people were of his innocence. This vindication, however, had no effect in reconciling the nation to the ſtadtholder and his late miniſter. The former indeed had behaved in an imprudent manner in many reſpects. A very remarkable inſtance of this happened in the month of November 1784. While the failure of the fleet in joining the combined ſquadrons at Breſt was ſtill in agitation, he was ſolicitous to take notice of a report againſt himſelf, and inſiſted that it ſhould be taken into conſideration. In the beginning of next year he alſo thought proper to publiſh a memorial, in which, not content with juſtifying himſelf, he reflected ſeverely on the States for having acceded to the armed neutrality; and, by the intemperance of their meaſures, having involved the nation in a war with Great Britain. Thus did the ſtadtholder ſeem to be deſirous of keeping alive the diſſentions which had unhappily taken place; and while the higher claſſes of people were thus engaged in mutual accuſations, the common ſort exerciſed their talents by continual riot and uproar. On theſe occaſions, orange cockades, and orange coloured flags were diſplayed from the ſteeples of their churches; and in their numerous meetings the partiſans of the prince of Orange not only declared their ſentiments with loud ſhouts and huzzas, but inſulted ſuch as were known to be friends to the ariſtocratical party. The prince drew up a proclamation to put a ſtop to theſe tumultuous aſſemblies; but the States, ſuppoſing it too lenient, drew up another, in which they forbade the uſe of orange-coloured

loured flags, cockades, and cravats, under pain of ſevere proſecution; and particularly warned the people againſt all tumult on the approaching birth-day of the prince. Even this trivial point was not given up by the ſtadtholder, who took care to have his paper poſted up, as well as that of the States.

In the mean time, the democratical ſpirit, which we have mentioned as beginning to diſplay itſelf in ſeveral inſtances, continued to ſpread very rapidly. The queſtion at firſt was only, Whether or not it was proper to place a deſpotic power in the hands of one man, whatever were his title, or in a certain number of ſelf-elected ſenators? But while the two parties were contending about this unimportant affair, a third originated within the city of Utrecht, whoſe conceptions of liberty were much more juſt, and indeed calculated to inſpire the moſt heroic notions. The principal deſign of this party was directed towards a reformation in the conſtitution, viz. concerning the government of the towns of the republic. In the year 1784 ſchemes had been formed, and committees appointed for reforming the conſtitution of Utrecht; but the States of the province had been careful to have the affair left in their deciſion, and at laſt appeared to be in no hurry to determine it ultimately. During this interval, ſome vacancies happening in the ſenate, they were immediately filled up in conformity with the regulations of 1674. The perſons elected were by no means agreeable to the burghers, on which the latter, impatient of the delay given to their expected reform, determined to avail themſelves of ſome of their natural rights, in order to execute their purpoſe. The ſenate-houſe was ſurrounded by two thouſand armed burghers, who declared their reſolution not to quit it until the election of the obnoxious ſenators ſhould be annulled. On this occaſion they were headed by one Mr Ondaatje, who ſeems to have been a very popular orator, and who now addreſſed the ſenators in a very ſpirited and eloquent harrangue.

This formidable appearance ſoon ſhook the reſolution of the Utrecht ſenate. They inſtantly declared the election void, and 19 out of the 40 of which their body is compoſed, declared their reſolution to take no further part in public affairs. Theſe ſeceding members were ſolicited by their colleagues to reſume their offices, and to allow matters to go on in their old way; and the ſame requeſt was ſoon after enforced by an application from the States. By theſe arguments the ſeceders were at laſt induced to comply, and the ſenate reſumed its uſual form. A proclamation was publiſhed, in which, though none of the expelled ſenators were replaced, the tumultuous proceedings were reprobated in the higheſt degree. An addreſs was preſented, ſigned by 150 of the moſt reſpectable burghers in Utrecht, profeſſing their confidence in the readineſs of that aſſembly to introduce every proper reform, &c. and requeſting the interference of the aſſembly to prevent the repetition of any violences like what had happened. They ſtill dreaded the power of the people ſo far, however, that they did not venture to take any active part in putting theſe reſolutions in execution till the month of July that year, when, ſuppoſing the popular flame to have ſubſided, M. Ondaatje was impriſoned; and as this occaſioned no commotion in the city, they next ventured to iſſue forth a mandate, expreſsly forbidding every perſon, under pain of being treated as a diſturber of the public tranquillity, to prepare, ſign, or cauſe to be ſigned, any petition or addreſs to the magiſtracy or government of the province.

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By this violent meaſure the popular party were urged to extremities, and ſuppoſing themſelves to be oppreſſed by the nobility, they determined to apply to the ſtadtholder for protection, and unite in one common cauſe againſt the tyranny of the magiſtrates. The diſcontents aroſe to ſuch an height, that a demand was made from the ſtadtholder of a body of troops to quell the turbulent ſpirit of the burghers of Amersfort; in conſequence of which, he diſpatched a battalion of infantry, with a regiment of cavalry, from the garriſon of Nimeguen to the place above mentioned. This gave ſuch offence, that the gates were ſecured, and the garriſon drawn out; and a reſolution entered into not to permit the entrance of any troops until the affair of the regulations of 1674 ſhould be determined. The ſenate of Utrecht commanded the burgomaſters not to back the patents or warrants of the prince for that purpoſe; and authoriſed them to inſiſt in the aſſembly of the States upon the immediate recal of the troops, and, in caſe of failure, to enter their proteſt againſt ſuch unconſtitutional meaſures. A general alarm was ſpread throughout the nation, and the citizens of a number of towns prepared addreſſes to their reſpective ſenates, requiring them to inſtruct their deputies in the States of Holland to propoſe the immediate recal of the troops from Amersfort. The prince of Orange, however, was ſo far from complying with this meaſure, that he next ſent a body of troops to garriſon the town of Campen; but the gates were ſhut againſt them. This obſtinacy greatly alienated the minds of the people from him; and, by reaſon of his apparent diſinclination to put a ſtop to the tumults continually kept up by his partiſans at the Hague, the oppoſite party took upon themſelves the juriſdiction of the police, managing the patroles in ſuch a manner, that every thing was tranſacted with the utmoſt tranquillity. This proceeding could not be agreeable to the ſtadtholder; but, finding his remonſtrances to anſwer no purpoſe, he ſecretly took the reſolution of withdrawing himſelf from the Hague, from which he accordingly ſet out for Breda, on the 14th of September 1785, and his princeſs ſet out next day for Lewarden, the capital of Frieſland.

During theſe diſturbances the preliminaries of peace were ſigned at Paris between the United States and the Emperor, ſome of the circumſtances of which were very humiliating to the former; particularly the apology made to his Imperial Majeſty, and the ſum of no leſs than L. 75[illegible],000 paid to him for the town of Maeſtricht. Theſe were ſcarce ſigned, when the king of Pruſſia, who till now had taken little concern in the affairs of the republic, delivered a memorial to the States, in which he complained of their treatment of the prince of Orange, and wiſhed them to endeavour to conciliate the differences betwixt him and the other party. The circumſtance of the Stadtholder having withdrawn himſelf from the Hague, however, operated very much to his diſadvantage, and prevented, perhaps, the good effects of his Pruſſian Majeſty's mediation. At laſt, on the matter being debated in an aſſembly of the States, it was found that the States themſelves were the proper ſovereigns of the country, that the Stadtholder was no more than their ſervant, and that whatever powers they might communicate to him were revocable at pleaſure; but with regard to the garriſon of the Hague in particular, they affirmed that the Provincial States had never given it into his hands. In purſuance of this idea, it was next directed, that on the commencement of the year 1786, the arms of the Houſe of

Orange ſhould be taken out of the enſigns of the troops of Holland, and thoſe of the province ſubſtituted in their room; that the preſident of the Provincial States ſhould on all occaſions receive the military honours, and ſalute the garriſon of the Hague, as the preſident of the States already did; and that no other officer of the province ſhould be entitled to that diſtinction. The next ſteps were to diſmiſs the body guards of the prince, though this was afterwards qualified by allowing them to extinguiſh themſelves, and to inliſt no more in the room of thoſe who died; to purchaſe a manſion-houſe for the weekly preſident of the States; to provide for him a ſtate coach; and to direct that victuals ſhould daily be diſtributed to the poor at the kitchen of his hotel, as had been cuſtomary at that of the prince of Orange. Theſe proceedings were by no means agreeable to the inhabitants of the Hague, who had all along ſhewn the greateſt attachment to the ſtadtholder; and they ſoon prepared a petition to the States of Holland, requeſting them to interpoſe their good offices with the prince of Orange to induce him to return to the place of his uſual reſidence. The States, however, ſuppreſſed this petition as ſoon as they knew that it exiſted; and the affairs of the ſtadtholder appeared in ſuch a deſperate light, that the king of Pruſſia is ſaid to have given his advice to him to yield to the neceſſity of the times. At the ſame time, he addreſſed a memorial to the States, complaining that they had taken no notice of his letter, and deſiring them to determine ſpeedily with regard to the garriſon of the Hague. In both theſe points his Pruſſian Majeſty was unſucceſsful. The States declared his propoſal to be altogether unſatisfactory, and the prince of Orange determined to force his antagoniſts into compliance; for which purpoſe he endeavoured to raiſe a body of troops, named the *Corps Orange*, in oppoſition to thoſe of the ariſtocratical party, who were ſtiled *Vry Corps*. Various diſturbances ſtill continued, during which the Orange party ſeemed to gain ground, and a favourable change in the ſentiments of the ſenate of Amſterdam took place with regard to the ſtadtholder. The influence of this aſſembly in that of the States General was till now ſo great, that it had become proverbial; however, in the preſent caſe it failed: the queſtion concerning the reſtoration of the garriſon of the Hague was carried in the negative by a majority of one voice. Notwithſtanding this diſappointment, the prince ſtill proceeded in his ſchemes, and forced the towns of Elburg and Hattem to receive garriſons. A requeſt from the ſenate of Amersfort, that he would ſend ſome troops to reduce the city of Utrecht to obedience, brought matters to the utmoſt extremity, and a civil war was looked upon as unavoidable. The new king of Pruſſia offered his mediation, but that being refuſed, he applied to the court of France to know whether they would co-operate with him in his pacific intentions. On receiving a favourable anſwer to this, both monarchs united their efforts to reconcile the contending parties, but all in vain; ſo that both ambaſſadors departed from the Hague, in the month of January 1787.

This unfortunate event produced various accuſations and vindications between the two parties, with a long train of negociations, reſolutions, and animoſities, until at laſt, in the month of May, the ſtadtholder gave orders to ſeize on Vreeſwick, a poſt of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its ſituation on the canal between that city and the territories of ſouth Holland; containing alſo the ſluices by which both theſe provinces might be overflowed. This brought on a ſkirmiſh

between the troops of the ſtadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other unimportant hoſtilities took place: but while the military operations were carried on in ſuch a languid manner, a violent tumult took place at Amſterdam, which, as uſual, was excited by the partiſans of the ſtadtholder, and in which ſeveral perſons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of moſt of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the ſtadtholder; but notwithſtanding this apparent advantage, and ſome others which afterwards took place, the diſputes ſtill continued with extreme violence, inſomuch, that the princeſs of Orange herſelf was ſeized, and detained priſoner for a night by the patriots. At laſt matters were happily ſettled by the king of Pruſſia, who, for this purpoſe, marched an army into the territories of the United States, and took poſſeſſion of the city of Rotterdam, and ſome other places, without reſiſtance. This overawed both parties to ſuch a degree, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded betwixt that monarch and the States of Holland. By this the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and his Pruſſian Majeſty guaranteed the ſtadtholderſhip, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the houſe of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives ſettled in the years 1747 and 1748.

Revolution in the Auſtrian Netherlands.

Here we ſhall conclude the hiſtory of the Seven United Provinces, whoſe inhabitants ſo glorioufly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the cauſe of liberty. Thoſe of the other ten, though, as it now appears, they are not inferior in valour or attachment to the cauſe of liberty, were not till very lately rouſed into action.

It was not long after the ſettlement of the diſturbances in Holland, that the provinces of the Netherlands, belonging to the emperor, determined to aſſert their liberty. As no great friendſhip could be ſuppoſed to exiſt between the States and his Imperial Majeſty, it was natural to ſuppoſe that the diſcontented ſubjects of the latter would find a ready aſylum in the territories of the Dutch. The quarrel originated, like thoſe in other countries, about the prerogatives aſſumed by the emperor, and which were more extenſive than his ſubjects wiſhed to allow. A letter concerning this had been publiſhed as early as the 13th of December 1787, by count Trautmanſdorff, the Imperial miniſter, to the council of Brabant; in which province the diſputes had originally commenced. In this performance the count took notice of the little confidence they put in his Majeſty, and commanded them in the moſt expreſs terms "to hold no connection, relation, correſpondence, or keep up any underſtanding whatever on public affairs, either in a body, or by commiſſioners, with the States or their deputies, without the previous knowledge, or expreſs command, of his Majeſty, or his repreſentative." This not proving effectual, and the emperor making uſe of force to aſſert his uſual prerogatives, the territories of the United States became a refuge for the diſcontented Brabanters. They firſt began to aſſemble in Dutch Brabant, in the cloſe of ſummer 1789, and being well received, took up their head quarters at Tilbourg. To this place they invited their diſcontented countrymen to join them, and promiſed them the pay of 14 ſols *per* day for their ſupport. From whatever ſource theſe patriots derived their finances, it ſoon became evident that they were well ſupplied; for this ſum was punctually paid, and they had great plenty of proviſions; ſo that, being protected by the

States

States General, they ſoon became very ſtrong, and in a very ſhort time manifeſted a deſign to aſſert their liberty by force of arms. Their firſt exploits were the taking of two forts, belonging to the emperor, ſituated between Antwerp and Bergen-op-Zoom. They ſeized alſo M. Crumpepin, chancellor of Brabant, threatening to hang him up by way of retaliation, for the firſt perſon of their party to whom the Emperor ſhould offer any violence.

On the part of his Imperial Majeſty the inſurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was iſſued by count Trautmanſdorff, governor of Bruſſels, intimating that no quarter ſhould be given them, and that the villages in which they concealed themſelves ſhould be ſet on fire. A general Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become maſter of them by aſſault, and would put every ſoul he found in them to the ſword. A reſolution was taken by the government of Bruſſels to diſarm all the inhabitants of the Low Countries, excepting ſuch as were in the actual ſervice of the emperor. A proclamation was accordingly iſſued forth, commanding all perſons to deliver up their arms within 24 hours, under pain of being accounted favourers of ſedition. All who ſhould be taken with arms in their hands, in any caſe of riot or inſurrection, to be put to death on the ſpot, without any trial. All the nobility and abbots who had left the country (and which they had done in great numbers) were commanded to return under pain of perpetual baniſhment, and confiſcation of eſtate.

In oppoſition to this ſanguinary proclamation, the patriots iſſued a manifeſto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority by reaſon of his various oppreſſions, cruelties, annulling his oath, and infringing the conſtitution. Baniſhment was threatened to ſuch as took part with him: and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though ſtrict orders were given that no crouds or mobs ſhould be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing ſo, ſhould be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogſtraten in Brabant, October 24th 1789. The king of Pruſſia was at that time aſſembling an army, with which it was thought he deſigned to take ſome active part in the preſent affair; but he publiſhed a manifeſto, declaring that he did not mean to interfere in the troubles of the Low Countries; but as a director of a circle of the empire, to take notice of thoſe which had happened in the biſhopric of Liege, and mandate of Wutzlar. Thus the emperor and the patriots were left to decide their quarrel by themſelves; and in this conteſt the latter diſplayed a reſolution, as well as power to accompliſh their purpoſes, which was by no means generally expected. Almoſt every town in Auſtrian Flanders ſhowed its determination to oppoſe the emperor, and the moſt enthuſiaſtic attachment to military affairs diſplayed itſelf in all ranks of men. Even the eccleſiaſtics manifeſted their valour on this occaſion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was ſoon raiſed, which after ſome ſucceſsful ſkirmiſhes with the patriotic troops, made themſelves maſters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Oſtend; ſo that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Bruſſels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loſs of 1000 men, beſides women and children. It reflects indelible diſgrace on the Imperial charac-

ter, as well as on the commanders of the troops, that they committed the moſt dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder and deſtroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the mercileſs ſavages not only deſtroyed the men, but killed women and ſucking infants. Some of them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them againſt the walls of houſes. By theſe monſtrous cruelties they enſured ſucceſs to their adverſaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almoſt inſtantly declared in their favour. They publiſhed a memorial for their juſtification, in which they gave, as reaſons for their conduct, the many oppreſſive edicts with which they had been haraſſed ſince the death of the empreſs queen; the unwarrantable extenſion of the Imperial prerogative, contrary to his coronation oath, and which could not be done without perjury on his part; the violence committed on his ſubjects by forcibly entering their houſes at midnight, and ſending them priſoners to Vienna, to periſh in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly maſſacred his ſubjects, on purpoſe to make them revolt; he had conſigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a deſign of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. Theſe things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and eaſily impoſe upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation rouſed by repeated injuries, and animated by deſpair, would riſe ſuperior to thoſe laſt efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reaſons they declared themſelves INDEPENDENT, *and for ever releaſed from the houſe of* AUSTRIA.

The emperor now, perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, publiſhed proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmoſt contempt. The patriots made the moſt rapid conqueſts, inſomuch, that before the end of the year they were maſters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg. The ſtates of Flanders having aſſembled at Ghent, began to lay down ſome of the rudiments of a new conſtitution, of which the following were the firſt they thought proper to authenticate. "1. The ſovereign is dethroned of all ſovereignty over the country of Flanders. 2. The ancient union with the Belgic States is renewed. 3. The offer of union and alliance is made to all the Belgic provinces. 4. An army of 20,000 regular troops ſhall be raiſed for the province of Flanders. 5. A commiſſion ſhall be ſent into foreign countries for the purchaſe of warlike ſtores. 6. The council of Flanders is declared the ſupreme tribunal. 7. Two permanent deputies from the committee of patriots to be admitted to the aſſembly of the States, and two deputies of the States to be added in return to that committee.

The emperor next declared himſelf willing to treat with thoſe whom he ſeemed not to be able to ſubdue; but the States publiſhed a paper by way of preliminary, which ſeemed to give very little hope of ſucceſs to the negociation. In this they inſiſted, 1. That the plenipotentiary, attended by two deputies from the States, ſhould repair to thoſe places in the town of Ghent, "where that *ſanguinary executioner* Dalton ordered, ſaw, and executed robbery, incendiary, rape, profanation, murder, and maſſacre." 2. The corpſes of thoſe "immolated to the fury of the ferocious ſervants of the Nero their maſter, to be digged up and expoſed to his excellency's view; that he might make a terrific report to the court

court of Vienna; and not only the banks of the Danube, but the whole world might be ſtruck with horror." Laſtly, when his heart was ſuppoſed to be ſufficiently impreſſed with this dreadful ſpectacle, it was to be notified to him in the aſſembly of the States, to which he was to be conducted, that "it was impoſſible to treat or make any conventions with a ſovereign perjured and perfidious, who had repeatedly violated the moſt ſacred of all human ties, though ſecured by the moſt ſolemn treaties with foreign powers."

Having thus ſet every enemy at defiance, the patriots proceeded to confer ſome honours upon their leader *Vandernoot*. He was diſtinguiſhed by the title of "agent plenipotentiary for the people of Brabant." On his arrival in Bruſſels he was drawn in triumph, preceded by a large body of horſe and foot, with drums beating and colours flying; ſeated all the time in an open chariot. After hearing divine ſervice in the cathedral, he repaired to the Engliſh hotel, where he was crowned by the people with laurels. The Bruſſel's gazette, which till now had been filled with the moſt opprobrious invectives againſt the patriots, all of a ſudden became the vehicle of their praiſes, and from a ſet of rebels and miſcreants, exalted them to the dignity of ſaviours of their country. Inſtead of being now publiſhed by the privilege of the king, its title announced it to be by the privilege of the united committee of the Low Countries, and the firſt ſentence ſtated, "That at length the country was happily delivered from the yoke of the emperor, and the tyranny of the houſe of Auſtria." On the evening of the day on which Vandernoot made his triumphal entry into Bruſſels, he went to the theatre, where, being placed in the governor-general's box, he was again crowned with laurels. The play acted was Voltaire's tragedy of the death of Cæſar; a piece which the emperor had abſurdly prohibited ſome months before.

A new act of union was now eſtabliſhed betwixt the Belgic provinces, and to which all thoſe formerly ſubject to Auſtria unanimouſly acceded. It originated betwixt thoſe of Flanders and Brabant, and was to the following purpoſe: That neither party ever enter into any compromiſe with their former ſovereign, but by common agreement. They agreed to change this union into one common ſovereignty between the two States; ſo that the whole power ſhould be centered in a congreſs compoſed of deputies named by both parties, according to an agreement to be afterwards made. The power of this ſovereign aſſembly to be confined to the ſole object of common defence, the power of making peace and war, the ſupport of a national militia, and the fortifications neceſſary for the defence of the country, the contracting alliances with foreign powers, &c. On the 4th of January 1790, the States of Brabant were opened with great ceremony at Ghent; they were declared independent, and the emperor to have forfeited all right to the ſovereignty of that country; and the union with Brabant was ſolemnly ratified. On the 11th, a ſolemn and general treaty of union was ſigned by the deputies from Brabant, Gueldres, Flanders, Weſt Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Tournay, with the territory depending on it, called Tourneſis, and Malines. In the preamble, they charge the emperor with having in various inſtances broke through the ſtipulations contained in the *Inaugural Compact*, which were more ancient than the houſe that governed the country, and coeval with the nation itſelf; that, by inceſſant innovations, he had overturned the conſtitution both

of

of church and ſtate; and, by the dictates of his wavering and arbitrary will, deprived the people of all their ancient cuſtoms and uſages; their ancient laws had become ineffectual under the ſword of the military; and the repreſentatives of the people, in contradiction to the oath taken by the emperor himſelf, had been aboliſhed. Finding themſelves therefore obliged to oppoſe force by force, they had made uſe of their natural rights to declare themſelves free and independent, and to enter into a treaty of fœderal union, under the title of the BELGIC UNITED STATES. The articles of this union are, 1. Each province to retain its right of ſovereignty in every thing relative to its internal government. 2. The deputies all to ſwear to the maintenance of the Catholic faith. 3. The civil and military functions never to be intermixed; of conſequence any officer cannot be a deputy, and *vice verſa*. 4. The United States pledge themſelves mutually to aſſiſt each other, and to make a common cauſe as often as they are attacked. 5. All perſons to be incapable of ſitting in congreſs, who are in the ſervice of any foreign power, or receive any penſion from one; as alſo, all thoſe, who after the ratification of this treaty of union ſhall accept of any title of honour, or any military order, or knighthood from any foreign power. 6. The union to be permanent and irrevocable.

Since that time the ſtate of Lunbourg has acceded to the treaty of union; by which every hope of recovering the loſt dominions ſeems to be entirely gone. They did not, however, omit to do every thing in their power to put themſelves in a proper ſtate of defence, though hitherto they have had no occaſion of exerting their valour; nor is it probable that the other European nations will ſuffer them to be again reduced under the Auſtrian yoke.

GERMANY.

Extent, Situation, and Boundaries. THIS empire extends in length about 600 miles, and in breadth 520, containing upwards of 180,000 ſquare miles. It is ſituated between 45 and 55 degrees of north latitude, and 5 and 19 of eaſt longitude; bounded on the weſt by the territories of France, and the Netherlands, from which it is divided by the Rhine, the Moſelle, and the Maeſe; on the eaſt by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia; on the north by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; and on the ſouth by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy.

Diviſions. In former times this country was divided into the Southern and Northern, or Upper and Lower Germany. It was divided by Maximilian, grandfather to Charles V. into ten great circles; which diviſion was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg in 1552. But at that time the 17 provinces of the Netherlands, called the circle of Burgundy, was accounted part of the empire; which being now ſeparated, there

British Statute Miles
20 60
GERMAN OCEAN
BRITISH OCEAN
DENMARK
Sylt
Nordstrand I.
Tonningen
Heidorp
Wilster
HOLSTEIN
Stade
Ameland
Schelling
Wieland
Texel I.
Jawes
Embden
Jade
Oldenburg
Bremen
Verden
Lunenburg
Delmenhurst
Hoya
Zell
Hanover
Osnaburg
Minden
Pyrmont
Hildesheim
Ritberg
Lippe
Paderborn
Gottingen
Cassel
Arensburg
Dusseldorf
Fredeburg
Cologne
Harpurg
Solms
Hirchfield
Waldec
Wesel
Ham
Lippe R.
Luppstat
Munster
Vlie
Zwol
Deventer
Lingen
Tecklenburg
Behtheim
Ravensburg
Lemgo
Embeck
Grubenhagen
Alkmaar
Haerlem
Amsterdam
Leyden
Hague
Utrecht
Zuyder Zee
Ysel
Maes R.
Rotterdam
Vlie
Middleburg
Ostend
Bruges
Ghent
Antwerp
Breda
Bergen op Zoom
Vinegnen
Vanloo
Bruſsels
Mildwright
Juliers
Liege
Limburg
Aix
Lisle
Tournay
Namur
Valencia
Avesnes
Coblentz
Nassau
Wezlar
Frankfort
Hanau
Aschaffenburg
Wurtsburg
Onspach
Weldentz
Luxemburg
Driers
Kirn
Worms
Manheim
Heidelburg
Spire
Rheims
Paris
Maese R.
Metz
Nancy
Mosel R.
Deuxponts
Hailbron
Baden
Stutgart
Tubingen
Zell
Ulm
Oeting
Donavert
Blenheim
Strasburg
Rhine R.
Hohen
Rotweil
Augsburg
Brisac
Friburg
Schuffhause
Basil
Zurich
Aarburg
Solothurn
St Gal
Appenzel
Zug
Bern
Stanz
Stantze
Glaris
Altorf
Neufchatel
Friburg
Lausane
Sion
Waters
GRISONS
Sondrid
Geneva
Geneva Lake
Rhone
Milan
ITALY
SWABIA
SWITZERLAND
LOWER RHINE
UPPER RHINE
NETHERLANDS
FRANCE
GERMANY
and the
NETHERLANDS
from the latest
AUTHORITIES
Mc Intyre sc.

12
14
16
18
20
BALTIC SEA
Bornholm
Mona I
Falster I
RUGEN
Lalanda I
Fehrn I
Gulf of Lubec
Stralsund
Usedom I
Wollin I
Colberg
Rugenwald
G. of Dantzic
Dantzic
Elbing
Rostock
Wismar
Lubec
POMERANIA
Cammin
PRUSSIA
Gustrow
Sverin
Waren
Golnow
New Stettin
LOWER
Stargart
Stettin
Strelitz
Rokentin
Potzlin
Zednik
Oder R.
Kalis
Thorn
Lunenburg
Havelburg
Konigsberg
POLAND
UPPER
Rhinow
Landsberg
BRANDENBURG
Stendel
Berlin
Custrin
Guesna
Potsdam
Brandenburg
Frankfort
Hanover
Brunswick
Bork
Belitz
Bezekau
Grossen
Hildesheim
Magdeburg
Wittenburg
Peitz
Cotbus
Somerfield
Sagan
Glogau
Mansfield
Hall
SAXONY
Leipsic
Bautzen
Siradia
Merseburg
Meissen
Wolau
Naumburg
Gorlitz
Lignitz
Brellau
Weimar
Dresden
Schweidnitz
Errfurt
Freyburg
Grotka
Oppelen
Salfield
Leitmeritz
Munsterberg
Plauen
Melnik
Glatz
Egra R.
Satz
Konigsgratz
Jagendorf
Egra
Lichnitz
Ratiboz
PRAGUE
Schomberg
Teschen
Bemburg
Beraun
BOHEMIA
Nurenberg
Pilsen
Swietland
Tabor
Bodenstat
Ambury
Neuern
Olmutz
MORAVIA
Piseck
Igla
Hammil
Cham
Brinn
Ratishon
Budweis
Trebitz
Znaim
Hradisch
Ingoldstat
Danube R.
Landshut
Landau
Strasnitz
Ottensheim
Danube Riv.
Passaw
Limtz
VIENNA
Presburg
BAVARIA
Brinnau
Hamburg
Munich
Stirar
Neustat
Starnberg
Javarin
Altenmark
Saltsburg
Halset
Fridberg
Hudmar
Knittelfeld
Gratz
St Gotard
STIRIA
Ernhausen
Vesprin
CARINTHIA
Clagenfurt
Loxenau
Bruck
Villach
Drave R.
Alps Mountains
Cilley
Petau
GORITIA
Gorits
Laubach
Zagrab
Drave R.
Zerknitz
Aquileia
Trieste
CROATIA
TURKEY
CARNIOLA
Venice
G. OF VENICE
St Veits
Carlstat
16
18
Long. East fr. London

are only nine circles commonly enumerated. The moſt authenticated diviſions of this extenſive empire are expreſſed in the following table:

The Northern Circles, - -	Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Weſtphalia
The Circles in the Middle, - -	Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia
The Southern Circles, - -	Auſtria Bavaria Swabia

1. UPPER SAXONY Circle.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Pomerania, in the North,	Pruſſian Pomerania, N. E.	Stetin, E. long. 14-50, N. lat. 53-30.
	Swediſh Pomerania, N. W.	Stralſund
Brandenburg in the Middle, ſubject to its own elector, hte king of Pruſſia.	Altmark, Weſt,	Stendel
	Middlemark,	Berlin, Potſdam
	Newark, Eaſt,	Francfort, Cuſtrin
Saxony, Proper, in the South, ſubject to its own elector, the king of Poland,	Duchy of Saxony, N.	Whittenburg
	Luſatia Marq. Eaſt,	Bantzen, Corlits,
	Miſnia, Marq. South,	Dreſden, E. long. 14-00, N lat. 51-04
		Miſſein
Thuringia, Langr. Weſt, - -		Erfurt, ſubject to the elector of Mentz
The Duchies of	Saxe Meiningen, - -	Meiningen
	Saxe Zeits, - -	Zeits
	Saxe Altenburg, S. E. -	Altenburg
	Saxe Weimer, Weſt, -	Weimer
	Saxe Gotha, Weſt, -	Gotha
	Saxe Eiſnach, S. W. -	Eiſnach
	Saxe Saalfield, -	Saalfield
	(ſubject to their own dukes.)	
The Counties of	Schwartſburg, W.	Sckwartſburg
	Belchilgen, N.	Belchilgen
	Mansfield, N.	Mansfield
	(ſubj. to their reſpective counts.)	
The Duchies of	Hall, Middle, ſubject to Pruſſia,	Hall
	Saxe Naumberg, ſubject to its own duke	Naumberg

The

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The Counties of	Stolberg, N. W. - -	Stolburg
	Hohenstein, W. - -	Northhausen
Principality of	Anhalt North, - -	Dessau, Zerbst
		Bernberg, Kothen,
Bishopric of ——	Saxe Hall, West, - -	Hall
	Voigtland, South, subject to the elector of Saxony, - -	Plowen
Duchy of	Merseberg, Middle, subject to the elector of Saxony, - - -	Merseberg

2. LOWER SAXONY Circle.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.
Holstein, D. North of the Elbe,	Holstein, Proper, N.	partly subj. to Denmark, and partly to the duke of Holstein Gottorp	Keil, subject to Holstein Gottorp
	Ditmarsh, West,		Meldrop, subject to Denmark
	Stormaria, South,		Glucstat, subject to Denmark
	Hamburg, a sovereign state, -		Hamburg, E. long. 10-10, N. l. 53-40, an imperial city
	Wagerland, East,		Lubec, an imperial city
Lawenburg duchy, North of the Elbe, subject to Hanover, - - - -			Lawenburg
Subj. to the duke of Brunswick Wolfembuttle,	D. Brunswick, Proper,	Middle	Brunswick, E. long. 10 30, N. lat. 52 20
	D. Wolfembuttle,	Middle	Wolfembuttle
	C. Rheinsteen, South, -		Rheinsteen
	C. Blackenburg, -		Blackenburg
Subj. to the elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain,	D. Calenburg, -		Hanover
	D. Grubbenhagen, -		Grubbenhagen
	Gottingen, - -		Gottingen
Lunenburg, D. subject to Hanover,	D. of Lunenburg, Proper,		Lunenburg
	D. Zell		Zell, E. long. 10-26 N. lat. 52-40
Bremen D. and Verden D. subject to Hanover, North.	Bremen,		E. long. 9-10, N. lat. 53 09, an imperial city
	Verden		
Mecklenburg, Duchy,	D. Swerin, North, subject to its duke, - -		Swerin E. long. 11-50, N. lat. 53-50
	D. Gustrow, North, subject to its duke, -		Gustrow

Divisions.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
	Hildesheim, Bishopric, in the Middle, subject to the elector of Cologn, -	Hildesheim, an imperial city
	Magdeburg, Duchy, South-east, subject to the king of Prussia, - - - -	Magdeburg
	Halberstat, Duchy, subject to Prussia, South-east, - - -	Halberstat

3. WESTPHALIA Circle.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
North Division.	Embden C. or East Friesland, subject to the king of Prussia, - -	Emden, an imperial city
	Oldenburg, C. subject to the king of Denmark,	Oldenburg
	Delmonhurst, subject to the king of Denmark,	Delmonhurst
	Hoye, subject to Hanover,	Hoye
	Diepholt, subject to Hanover,	Diepholt
Middle Division.	Munster, B. subject to the elector of Cologn, - - -	Munster, E. long. 8-00, N. lat. 52
	Paderborn, B. subject to the same,	Paderborn
	Osnaburg, B. subject to the same,	Osnaburg
	Lippe, C. subject to its own count,	Lippe, Pyrmont
	Minden, D. subject to Prussia,	Minden
	Ravensburg, C. subject to Prussia,	Ravensburg
	Westphalia, D. subject to the elector of Cologn, - - - -	Arensburg
	Tecklenburg, C. subject to their respective counts.	Tecklenburg
	Ritberg, C. subject to their respective counts.	Ritberg
	Schawenburg, C. subject to their respective counts.	Schawenburg
Western Division.	Cleves, D. subject to the king of Prussia, - - -	Cleef, E. lon. 5-36, N. lat. 51-40
	Berg, D. subject to the elector Palatine, - -	Dusseldorf
	Juliers, D. subject to the elector Palatine, - -	Juliers, Aix
	Mark, C. subject to Prussia, -	Ham
	Liege, B. subject to its own shbiop,	Liege, E. l. 5-36, N. lat 50-40
		Huy
	Bentheim, C. subject to Hanover,	Bentheim
	Steinfort, C. subject to its count,	Steinfort

4. UPPER RHINE Circle.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Hesse,	Hesse-Cassel, Landg. N. - -	Cassel, E. lon. 9-20 N lat. 51-10
	Hesse Marpurg, Landg. N. - - -	Marpurg
	Hesse Darmstat, Landg. S. - -	Darmstat

Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective Landgraves.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
	Hesse Homberg,	Homberg
	Hesse Rhinefield,	Rhinefield
	Hesse Wanfried,	Wanfried
Counties in the Wetteraw, South,	Nassau Dillenburg,	Dillenberg
	Nassau Diets,	Diets
	Nassau Hadamar,	Hadamar
	Nassau Kerberg,	Kerberg
	Nassau Siegen,	Siegen
	Nassau Idstein,	Idstein
	Nassau Weilburg,	Weilburg
	Nassau Wisbaden,	Wisbaden
	Nassau Bieldstein	Bielstein
	Nassau Otweiler,	Otweiler
	Nassau Usingen,	Usingen

each county subject to its own count of the House of Nassau,

Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state, — Frankfort, on the Maine, E. long. 8-30, N. latitude 50-8, an imperial city

County of Erpach, subj. to its own count — Erpach, East

Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state, — Spire, on the Rhine, an imrial city

Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts, — Deuxponts, in the Palat.

County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel, - - - — Catzenelbogen on the Lhon

Counties of	Waldic, subject to its own count,	Waldec
	Solms, subject to its own count,	Solms
	Hanau, subject to Hesse Cassel,	Hanau
	Eysenberg, subj. to its own count	Eysenberg
	Sayn, - - -	Sayn
	Wied, - - -	Wied
	Witgenstein, - -	Witgenstein
	Hatzfield, - - -	Hatzfield
	Westerberg, - -	Westerberg

Abbey of Fuld, subject to its abbot, —— Fuld

Hirchfield, subject to Hesse Cassel, —— Hirchfield

5. LOWER RHINE Circle.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.
Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, subject to the elector Palatine, -	Heidelburg, on the Neckar, E. long. 8-40, N. lat. 49-30
	Philisburg, Manheim, and Frankendal, on the Rhine.

Divisions.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.
Archbishoprics and Electorates of	Cologn,	subject to their respective electors.	Cologn, on the Rhine, E. long. 7-20, N. lat. 50-45
	Mentz,		Bonn, on the Rhine
			Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenburg, on the Maine
	Triers,		Triers, on the Moselle
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state, - - -			Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city
Duchy of Simmeren, subject to its own duke, - -			Simmeren
Counties of	Rhinegravestein, - -		Rhinegravestein
	Meurs, subject to Prussia, -		Meurs
	Veldents, subject to the elector Palatine, - -		Veldents
	Spanheim, - - -		Creutznach
	Leymingen, - -		Leymingen

6. FRANCONIA Circle.

	Divisions.		Chief Towns.
Bishopries of	Wurtsburg, W.	subject to their respective bishops,	Wurtsburg
	Bemberg, N.		Bemberg
	Aichstat, S.		Aichstat
Marquisates of	Cullenback,	subject to their respective Margraves,	Cullenback
	North-east,		
	Onspach, S.		Onspach
Principality of Henneburgh, N. - -			Henneburgh
Duchy of Coberg, North, subject to its own duke,			Coberg
Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke,			Hilburghausen
Burgravate of Nuremburg, S. E. an independent state, - - - - -			Nuremburg, an imperial city
Territory of the Great Master of the Teutonic Order, at present the elector of Cologn, Mergentheim, S. W. - - -			Mergentheim
Counties of	Reineck, W. - -		Reineck
	Bareith, E. sub. to its own Margr.		Bareith
	Papenheim, S. sub. to its own count,		Papenheim
	Wertheim, W. - -		Wertheim
	Cassel, Middle, - -		Cassel
	Schwartzenburg, subject to its own count, - - -		Schwartzenburg, Middle
	Holach, S. W. - -		Holach

7. AUSTRIA Circle.

The whole Circle belongs to the Emperor of Germany.

Divisions.		Chief Towns.
Archduchy of Austria, Proper,		Vienna, E. long. 16-40, N. lat. 48-10, Lints, Ens, West
Duchies of	Stiria & Cilley, C.	Gratz, Cilley, S. E.
	Carinthia,	Glagenfurt, Lavemund, S. E.
	Carniola,	Lauback, Zerknits, Trieste, St Veits, S. E.
	Goritia,	Gorits, S. E.
County of Tyrol,		Inspruck, S. W. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland
Bishopricsof	Brixen,	Brixen,
	Trent,	Trent,

8. BAVARIA Circle.

Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.
Duchy of Bavaria Proper, on the Danube,	subj. to the elector of Bavaria.	Munich, E. long. 11-32, N. lat. 48 c. Landshut, Ingoldstat. N. W. Donawert, (Ratisbon), N. an imperial city
Palatinate of Bavaria,		Amberg, (Sultsbach), N. of the Danube, subject to the elector Palatine
Freissingen, subject to its own bishop, —		Freissingen
Bishopric of Passau, subject to its own bishop		Passau, E. on the Danube
Duchyof Neuburg, subject to the elector Palatine,		Neuburg, W. on the Danube
Archbishopric of Saltsburg, subject to its own archbishop,		Saltsburg, S. E. Hallen

9. SWABIA Circle.

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Duchy of Wurtemburg, subject to the d. of Wurtemburg	Stutgard, E. long. 9-20 N. lat. 48-57	on or near the Neckar
	Stutgard, Tubingen, Hailbron,	

Subdivisions.

Subdiviſions.			Chief Towns.	
Marquiſates of	Baden Baden Baden Dourlach,	ſubject to their own reſpective Margraves.	Baden Doulach, Baden Weiler,	on or near the Rhine
Biſhopric of Augſburg, ſubj. to its own biſhop, - -			Augſburg, an imperial city, Hockſtet, Blenhein, on or near the Danube	
Territory of Ulm, a ſovereign ſtate, - - - -			Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city	
Biſhopric of Conſtance, ſubject to its own biſhop, under the Houſe of Auſtria,			Conſtance, on the lake of Conſtance	
Principalities of	Mindelheim, Furſtemburg, Hohenzollern,	ſubj. to their reſpective Princes.	Mindelheim, S. of Augſburg Furenburg, S. Hohenzollern, S.	
Counties of	Oeting, - - Koningſeck, - - Hohenrichburg, -		Oeting, E. Koningſeck, S. E. Gemund, N.	
Baronies of	Waldburg, - - Limpurg, - -		Waldburg, S. E. Limpurg, N.	
Abbeys of	Kemptem, - Buchaw, - Limdaw, -		Kemptem, on the Iller, Buchaw, S. of the Danube Lindaw, on the lake Conſtance, imperial cities	
Imperial Cities, or ſovereign States, - -			Nordlingen, North of the Danube Memminghen, E. Rotwel, on the Neckar, and many more	
Subject to the Houſe of Auſtria,	Black Foreſt, N. W. Rhinefield, C. Marquiſate of Burgaw Territory of Briſgow, on the Rhine, -		Rhinefield & Lauffenburg —Burgaw, Eaſt Friburg & Briſac	

Name. The moſt ancient name of the Germans is ſaid to be that of *Teutones*, and to this day they call their country *Teutchland;* but the common name of the country, *Germany*, is derived from the words *Ger*, or *Gur*, and *Man;* ſignifying, in the Celtic language, a valiant man. Great part of modern Germany was anciently included in the province of Gaul.

Air, Soil, &c. By reaſon of the great extent of this empire, the air varies very conſiderably. Towards the Alps the air is very ſharp, as well as in the northern parts bordering on the Baltic Sea. The climate varies likewiſe in proportion to the cultivation of the country; extenſive foreſts being always productive of a cold and moiſt air. The ſoil is likewiſe various in different parts; though it is nowhere improved to the

the full; but the art of agriculture is daily becoming better known, in ſuch a manner as muſt make a favourable change on the moſt barren parts of the country.

Mountains. Among theſe we may reckon the Alps, which ſeparate Germany from Italy; thoſe which divide Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia, from Bohemia, &c.

Foreſts. Anciently Germany was little better than one continued foreſt; and though now the country is greatly cleared by cutting down vaſt quantities of the woods, there are ſtill more extenſive foreſts here than in many parts of Europe. In Cæſar's time the Hercynian foreſt was nine days journey in length, and the remains of it are ſtill extant; but it is now divided into many ſmaller woods, which are diſtinguiſhed by different names. Almoſt every perſon of note alſo has a ſmall wood, in which he may take the pleaſure of the chace. The paſſion the Germans have for hunting the wild boar is ſaid to be the reaſon why there are ſo many more woods in Germany than in other European countries; though this undoubtedly proceeds in part from the ſavage diſpoſition of the former inhabitants, and the many wars by which this empire has often been depopulated, and by which the progreſs of agriculture has been grievouſly impeded. Moſt of the woods are of pine, oak, fir, and beech; and the parks, or hunting-chaces of the gentlemen, are well ſtored with deer of ſeven or eight ſorts; many of them being of a vaſt ſize, and of ſeveral different colours. In the foreſts alſo there are vaſt numbers of bears, foxes, hares, conies, &c. and wild fowl abound ſo much in ſome diſtricts, that the peaſants uſe them, as well as veniſon, for their ordinary food.

Lakes and Rivers. The principal lakes of Germany are thoſe of Conſtance, Chiemſee, or the lake of Bavaria, and the Zirchnitzer Sea, in the duchy of Carniola; the waters of which laſt, in certain ſeaſons of the year, retire into holes with the fiſh they contain, and return again with exceſſive violence at others. Beſides theſe there are alſo, in this empire, vaſt bodies of ſtagnant waters, from which putrid and almoſt peſtilential vapours ariſe, and by which the adjacent country is infeſted with many dangerous diſorders. The principal rivers are the Danube, or Donaw, the Rhine, Elbe, Weſer, Moſelle, and Oder. The Danube is undoubtedly the fineſt river in Germany, or indeed in Europe: nay, ſome pretend that it excells all rivers in the world; but for this extravagant aſſertion there certainly is not the leaſt foundation. However, it is certainly an immenſe collection of water, as receiving almoſt all the water which pours down from the weſt ſide of the Carpathian mountains that ſurround Hungary. Its courſe from its origin to the place where it empties itſelf into the Black Sea, is not leſs than 1600 miles. The ſtream is rapid, from which circumſtance it takes its name; and it is ſo broad between Vienna and Belgrade, that fleets belonging to the Turks and emperor of Germany have engaged upon it. In ſome places its navigation is interrupted by cataracts; notwithſtanding which its ſtream is of the moſt extenſive uſe to commerce, by facilitating the conveyance of goods through different parts of the country.

Baths and Mineral Waters. Theſe are ſaid to abound more in this empire than in any other country in Europe, or indeed in the whole Continent put together. Theſe at preſent held in moſt eſtimation are the baths of Aix-la-Chapelle; and which are divided into the emperor's bath, and the little bath; both of them ſo hot, that the water muſt be allowed

allowed to cool for a conſiderable time before they are uſed. The mineral waters at Wildungen are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and are therefore incloſed with a wall. The ſprings of Spaw and Pyrmont have been greatly celebrated, as well as thoſe of Carlſbad and Baden; though it is more than probable that the great cures ſaid to have been performed by the waters were in reality owing to the free air, exerciſe, and amuſement, enjoyed by the patients during their reſidence at the ſprings. The baths and conveniencies for the patients at theſe waters are excellent, and the conſtructions for this purpoſe have coſt vaſt ſums; but theſe are much more than repaid by the immenſe concourſe of company from all quarters; many of whom come to theſe places for diverſion, as well as for the purpoſes of health

Metallic and Mineral Productions. Theſe are to be met with in great abundance throughout the empire; and hence Germany has long been celebrated for excellent chemiſts and metallurgiſts. Mines of all the metals, gold and platina excepted, are met with throughout the empire; as are alſo coal-pits, ſalt-mines, and ſalt pits; and the manufacture of ſaltpetre is common. In Sileſia, Auſtria, and Bavaria, are alſo met with mines of ſeveral kinds of precious ſtones, as ſapphires, amethyſts, jaſper, agate, carbuncles turquoiſes, and moſt valuable rubies. The lakes and rivers alſo produce pearls. Alum, vitriol, and ſulphur, are produced in great abundance; and the country abounds with alabaſter, marble, ſlate, and various other kinds of ſtones of an inferior quality.

Vegetables and Animals. Notwithſtanding the little progreſs that agriculture has yet made among the Germans, proviſions are cheaper in that country than almoſt any in the world; ſo that it is generally believed, that if this uſeful art had been known ſooner to the inhabitants in any tolerable degree, even as late as the middle of this century, Germany would by this time have been the moſt fruitful country in Europe. The prodigious armies which it has repeatedly maintained, and the devaſtations it has often endured, for a great number of years together, are ſo many undeniable evidences of its extreme fertility. Its productions in general are ſimilar to thoſe of the countries already deſcribed; but the Rheniſh and Moſelle wines have ſome properties which render them more particularly ſerviceable to people labouring under certain diſeaſes than other wines.

With regard to the domeſtic animals of Germany, the horſes are large, but heavy; nor are their black cattle or ſheep comparable to thoſe of Britain; though this perhaps may be owing to the want of proper management. A vaſt variety of fine ſinging birds are met with throughout the empire, which are ſent to all parts of Europe; the larks are particularly excellent. The chace of the wild boar, as we have already obſerved, is a favourite diverſion of the Germans. He is three or four times as large as the hogs of this country; and their hams and fleſh are preferred to any, even the fineſt of this country for flavour. We have formerly had occaſion to take notice of the calumnies which have been propagated concerning the creature called the *Glutton;* but in Germany he is ſaid to be even worſe than in other countries. It preys upon every thing that has life; but particularly fawns, goats, hares, rabbits, and birds; on which it feeds ſo rapaciouſly, that it falls into a kind of torpid ſtate, ſo that not being able to move, he is ſurpriſed and killed by the huntſmen. Thus alſo he is ſometimes ſurpriſed and killed by boars or other wild beaſts, though they will not eat of his fleſh. The fur is valuable, being a beautiful reddiſh brown.

Inhabitants,

Inhabitants, Population, &c. The Germans are generally well built, fair, and tall; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony, have very fine and delicate features. Both ſexes are fond of rich dreſſes; the men adorning themſelves with gold and ſilver lace, and the women with jewels if they can procure them. At the principal courts the ladies follow the French faſhions; only they are leſs inclined to paint. In ſome courts they are dreſſed with rich furs. The dreſs of the common people is very fantaſtic; but in this reſpect they are now daily reforming, and make a different appearance from what they did ſome time ago. Like other nations inhabiting a country where the cold is ſevere in the winter time, they make uſe of ſtoves, which are ſometimes made ſo portable, that ladies carry them to church. Inſtead of blankets they uſe a feather bed for their covering, with ſheets ſtitched to it. In general they are in much better circumſtances than the French; only ſome of thoſe ſubject to little needy princes, of which the empire affords many, are ſqueezed by them in an intolerable manner. In their diſpoſitions they are frank, honeſt, hoſpitable, and without affectation or diſguiſe; but the nobility, and higher claſſes of people, are ſo proud of their pedigree, as to become objects of ridicule on that account. They are accounted perſons of ſo much honour, that in other countries, England eſpecially, ſharpers who pretend to come from Germany meet with more credit than if they aſſume any other title. Theſe exceſſive pretenſions to honour, and abſurd eſtimation of titles, anceſtry, and ſhew, are often productive of real inconveniencies. The princes, equally vain with their ſubjects, look upon themſelves as a kind of ſuperior beings, and therefore think it below them to encourage agriculture, though by ſo doing they might greatly increaſe their revenue. Many of their nobility inherit no other eſtates but their titles, and are therefore glad to enter into the armies of their princes, or others, in order to procure a ſubſiſtence. All their children inherit the titles of their fathers, and thus the heralds and others, to whom the ſettlement of genealogies belongs, are often greatly perplexed. In this country the ſame complaiſance is not ſhewed to the ladies that is done in England and ſome other parts, by giving them pre eminence at table, and other marks of attention. Neither indeed do they ſeem to deſire any thing of this kind, having little ambition or inclination for diſcourſe, though ſaid to have ſome bias towards gaming. The Germans are ſaid to be greater eaters and drinkers, which in ſome meaſure may be true, by reaſon of the great plenty of wine and proviſions their country affords. This, however, alſo ſeems to be declining; for though none indulge themſelves more in feaſting at birth-days, marriages, and funerals, and the gueſts every where drink freely during the time of dinner, yet at the beſt tables the repaſt is always concluded with coffee. They are very ingenious in every kind of mechanical invention, and are very induſtrious and perſevering. Their clock and watch-work, jewellery, painting, ſculpture, and ſome kinds of architecture, have been particulary remarkable. In their military character they are ſaid to want animation; but we muſt look upon this to be a falſe charge, when we conſider the great exploits performed by them under prince Eugene and Montecuculi. It is indeed certain that they have never atchieved any great matters when commanded by natives, as appears from the war with the late king of Pruſſia, in which all the force of the emperor was by no means able to reſiſt

that monarch; though this might perhaps have been owing to wrong counſels at the court of Vienna.

The amuſements of the Germans in the field are hunting, bear-bating, &c. They are fond of going to public places, as thoſe where company reſort to drink mineral waters. They alſo amuſe themſelves with billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, &c. When the Danube is frozen over, in the winter time, the ladies take their diverſion upon the ice, in ſledges of different and fantaſtic ſhapes, as griffins, tygers, &c. where they ſit dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs. The ſledge is drawn by one horſe, or ſometimes by a ſtag, adorned with plumes of feathers, &c. This diverſion is taken chiefly in the night-time, ſervants going before on horſeback with torches; and the horſe which draws the machine is guided by a gentleman who ſtands behind on the ſledge. The following eſtimate has been made of the number of inhabitants in this empire:

Moravia	1,100,000
Auſtrian Sileſia	200,100
High and Low Luſatia	580,000
Circle of Auſtria	4,150,000
Bavaria	1,148,438
Archbiſhopric of Saltzburgh	250,000
Wutremburgh	565,890
Baden	200,100
Augſburgh	40,200
Bamberg and Wurtſburgh	400,000
Nuremberg	70,000
Juliers and Berg	260,000
Munſter	130,000
Oſnaburg	116,674
The Pruſſian Eſtates in the Circle of Weſtphalia	550,000
Naſſau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman	74,700
Oldenburg	79,071
Mayence	314,100
Palatinate of Rhine	289,614
Heſſe Caſſel and Darmſtadt	700,000
Fulda	7,000
Frankfort on the Maine	42,600
High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia	1,326,041
Swediſh Pomerania	100,549
Pruſſian Pomerania	462,970
Brandenburg	1,007,232
Gotha	77,900
Schwartzburgh, Madgeburg, and Mansfield	271,461
Halberſtadt and Hohenſtein	130,761
Hanover	750,000
Brunſwick	166,440
Holſtein	300,000
Mecklenburg	220,000
Mulhauſen	13,049
Hamburgh	100,100
	17,167,650

Religion. Though formerly this empire, as well as the reſt of Europe, was ſunk in the darkneſs of Popery, yet it can boaſt of being the original ſource of the reformation, as Luther, who firſt diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his ſucceſs againſt the Pope, was a native of Saxony. Before his time, indeed, the Bohemians had glorioufly oppoſed that torrent of ſuperſtition which overflowed the whole earth; but they were at laſt ſuppreſſed. An account of the different ſects of Proteſtants has already been given in the introduction. Many of theſe exiſt in Germany, but there are ſtill a great number of Papiſts; ſo that it has been ſuppoſed the two religions are pretty equal in this reſpect. The Popiſh clergy are ſaid to be ignorant and diſſolute in their morals; but the Proteſtant divines have a very good character for gravity and ſobriety of deportment.

Archbiſhoprics and Biſhoprics. We find ſome difference in the accounts given by different authors concerning theſe eſtabliſhments Some repreſent the ſee of Vienna as an archbiſhopric depending immediately upon the Pope, others as a ſuffragan of that of Saltzburg.

Archbiſhoprics.	Suffragans.
Mentz, -	Spire, Worms, Straſburg, Wurtſburg, Aichſtat, Ferden, Chur, Hildeſheim, Paderborn, Conſtance, Halberſtat, and Bamburg.
Triers, -	Metz, Toul, and Verdun.
Cologne, -	Liege, Munſter, Minden, and Oſnabrug.
Magdeburg,	Meiſſen, Maeſburg, Naumburg, Brandenburg, and Havelburg.
Saltzburg, -	Frieſinghen, Ratiſbon, Paſſau, Chiemſe, Seckau, Lavant, Brixen, Gurk, and Neuſtat, Vienna exempt.
Bremen, -	Lubec, Latſburg, and Schwerin.

The archbiſhop of Mentz has 12 ſuffragans, though one is ſaid to be exempted from his juriſdiction. Triers has three, Cologne four, Magdeburg five, Saltzburg nine, excluſive of Vienna, and Bremen three. The following eccleſiaſtical ſtates have been rendered ſecular, viz. Oſnaburg, Lubec, Minden, Halberſtadt, Magdeburg, Verden, and Bremen. The firſt goes by turns to the Houſes of Bavaria and Hanover, and is now held by the ſecond ſon of his Britannic Majeſty. Such of theſe as were formerly archbiſhoprics now go by the name of duchies, the others by that of principalities.

Language. That which prevails all over Germany is the Teutonic, which is an original language, and no dialect of the Celtic. It is the ſame with that called high Dutch. It varies, however, ſo much in its pronunciation, that the people in the different provinces ſcarcely underſtand one another. Latin and French are very uſeful to ſuch travellers as do not underſtand high Dutch.

Learning and Learned Men. The number of learned men in Germany is perhaps greater than in any other country in Europe. Almoſt all of them alſo are authors; for none can be a graduate in their univerſities who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt. Many have diſtinguiſhed themſelves very eminently in various branches of ſcience; as Van Swieten, Hoffman, and Haller in the medical line; Heiſter in anatomy and ſurgery; Newman, Margraaff, &c. in chemiſtry, &c. About the time of the reformation, however, the number of theological diſputes,

diſputes, with which the ſyſtems of religion were infeſted, gave an air of dullneſs and pedantry to the German writings, which they have never yet entirely ſhaken off. It was not till the year 1730 that Germany began to improve in literature. Leibnitz and Wolfius ſhewed the way, by introducing a better philoſophy than had hitherto prevailed. A new German grammar was likewiſe publiſhed; and a literary ſociety, inſtituted by Gotſched, which introduced a more correct way of writing, poliſhed and reſtored the purity of the German language, and promoted the ſtudy of the *belles lettres*. From this period a remarkable difference was obſerved not only in the writings of the German authors, but alſo in their mode of preaching. Some of the works of the beſt Engliſh divines were tranſlated into the German; as thoſe of Tillotſon, Sherlock, &c.; but indeed it muſt be owned that the German preachers are ſtill too much inclined to prolixity, and to vulgariſms in diſcourſe On the tranſlation of ſome of the periodical papers of Britain, ſuch as the Spectator, Tatler, &c, into German, a great deſire appeared of doing ſomething in imitation of theſe publications. One of the beſt of the German performances of this kind appeared at Hamburg, under the title of "The Patriot." In this Dr Thomas, afterwards lord biſhop of Saliſbury, was concerned; being at that time chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Hamburg. The taſte of the German authors is now greatly improved by Dr Gellert, whoſe writings are particularly calculated to inſpire ſentiments of morality; and his fables and romances are ſo much read, that many of the ladies have them almoſt by heart. In general, however, the romances of the Germans are far inferior to thoſe of our own country. In chemiſtry, antiquity, &c. the Germans are particularly celebrated; and this empire has produced ſome great muſicians, particularly Handel, whoſe name ſtands perhaps unrivalled among the muſical tribe.

Principal Cities, &c. Theſe are ſo numerous in this empire, that our limits will not by any means allow us to enter into a particular detail or deſcription of them; ſo that, we muſt content ourſelves with mentioning ſome of the capitals of the different diviſions. Of theſe Berlin, the capital of Brandenburg, and of all his Pruſſian Majeſty's dominions, ought certainly to ſtand in the firſt place. It is ſituated on the river Spree, and has many elegant palaces beſides that of the king. The ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious and regular, but the houſes inconvenient, ill furniſhed, and what is worſe, very indifferently ſtocked with inhabitants, though they make a neat appearance without. The arſenal is an elegant building, and by its contents bears witneſs to the martial diſpoſition of the Pruſſian monarchs; being ſaid to contain arms for no fewer than 200,000 men. There are here a great number of manufactures. According to Buſching, there were, in the year 1755, no fewer than 443 ſilk looms, 149 for half ſilks, 2858 for woollen ſtuffs, 453 for cottons, 248 for linen, 454 for lace work, 39 frames for ſilk ſtockings, and 310 for worſted ones. Here alſo are manufactures of tapeſtry, gold and ſilver work, and mirrors. The city, however, is a place of no great ſtrength, ſo that the Auſtrians eaſily made themſelves maſters of it twice during the late war; and, had it not been for the humanity of their generals, it would undoubtedly have been levelled with the ground. The inhabitants were computed by Buſching, in 1755, to amount to 126,600.

Dreſden, the capital of the electorate of Saxony, has long been remarkable for a manufacture of excellent porcelain. Here alſo are manufactures

nufactures of mirrors, founderies for bells and cannon; and a conſiderable trade is carried on by means of the river Ella, on both ſides of which the town is ſituated. The inhabitants are computed at about 110,000. The electorate, of which this city is the capital, may indeed be accounted the richeſt in Germany, nay, may perhaps in this reſpect vie with any country in Europe. The whole revenue does not exceed L. 1,350 000, yet the electorate contains 210 walled towns, 61 market towns, beſides about 3000 villages. It has alſo many mines of precious ſtones, and ſuch a variety of fine manufactures, that we cannot but wonder at the moderation and patriotiſm of the Saxon princes, who exact ſuch a moderate revenue from their ſubjects. The city of Leipſic is next in ſplendour to the capital, being ſituated in a pleaſant manner on the river Pleiſſe, and having large and well built ſuburbs like the former. A fine walk of lime trees is interpoſed between the ſuburbs and town, which goes round the whole extent; and the ditches are planted with mulberry trees. The ſtreets are very convenient, and well lighted in the night time, having no fewer than 700 lamps for that purpoſe. The eſtabliſhed religion is the Lutheran; but the place has long been famous for the liberty of conſcience afforded to all parties. The library of the univerſity contains 26,000 volumes, of which 0000 are folios. That of the magiſtrates contains 36,000 volumes, with about 2000 manuſcripts, beſides many cabinets of valuable antiquities

The city of Hanover, capital of that electorate, and of his Britannic Majeſty's German dominions, is ſituated on the river Leina, in a very pleaſant and fertile plain. It is ſuppoſed to be the city called *Lephana* by Ptolemy, and afterwards *Lawrenroda*, from a neighbouring caſtle ſubject to the counts of that name. Its preſent name was given from a ferry over the Leina; the name Hanover being the ſame with *Have-over* in Engliſh. It is a place of no great ſtrength, though ſurrounded by a wall and ſome outworks; but has a very agreeable walk round them. It is divided by the river on which it ſtands into two parts, called the Old and New Towns; the former but indifferently built, but the new adorned with handſome ſtructures, and continually improving; though it muſt be owned, that the acceſſion of the family of the elector to the kingdom of Britain has proved very detrimental to the increaſe of the city. The ſtreets are ſpacious, regular, and well lighted with lanthorns in the night time. The rooms of the electoral palace are not only grand, but commodious, and hung with rich tapeſtry, for which this palace is particularly diſtinguiſhed; and the chapel is ſaid to contain a great number of relics brought from Jeruſalem. The ſituation of the city is very agreeable, with many pleaſant ſeats in the neighbourhood, and it has a conſiderable number of inhabitants. It was formerly a free Imperial city, as well as one of the Hans towns; at which time it carried on a conſiderable trade; but now the only commerce it has is the exportation of a kind of muddy ſmall beer, which is uſed by the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages. At Herrenhauſen, about two miles north of the city, is the king's palace, built by Erneſt Auguſtus, father of George I. It conſiſts moſtly of wood, and is remarkable chiefly for its garden. One ſide of this is covered by a narrow piece of water, about a quarter of a mile in length; the walks are moſtly of gravel, wide and ſpacious, with large ſquares and gardens dividing the ſeveral parts from one another. The intermediate ſpaces contain lofty groves and orchards, all of which produce a grand effect. Here is alſo a fine *jet d'eau*, conſtructed

by

by Mr Benſon in 1716, which ſpouts the water up to a ſurprizing height. Here is alſo a ſylvan theatre in the German taſte, where plays and maſquerades are occaſionally exhibited. The whole of the electorate does not contain above 750,000 people; though there are enumerated in it 58 cities, and 60 market towns, beſides villages. Bremen, with its ſuburbs, a city belonging to the electorate, contains about 50,000 inhabitants, who carry on a conſiderable trade by means of the river Weſer. Oſnaburg, lying between the rivers Weſer and Ems, has a revenue of about L. 30,000 belonging to his Britannic Majeſty's ſecond ſon. It is remarkable for the manufacture which bears its name, and for affording the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The electoral forces are ſaid to amount to 24,000, and the revenue to L. 700,000, a conſiderable part of which ariſes from the ſilver mines.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, is ſituated at the conflux of the Oder and Olaw, with two other ſmall rivers. It is a large and handſome city, governed by its own magiſtrates. The inhabitants are a mixture of Lutherans and Roman Catholics, though the government is in the hands of the former. The town was formerly ſtrongly fortified, but the works are now much decayed. The town-houſe is magnificent, and has a beautiful clock on one of the higheſt and fineſt towers in Germany, which proclaims the hours by ſound of trumpets and other muſical inſtruments. The trade of Breſlau, and indeed of the whole province of Sileſia, is greatly improved ſince it fell into the hands of the king of Pruſſia; the manufactures are numerous, and the revenue ſaid to be near a million ſterling; though, when ſubject to the Auſtrians, it never yielded above one half that ſum.

Frankfort on the Maine, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from another of the ſame name on the Oder, is a free Imperial city of Wetteravia, on the confines of Heſſe and Franconia, pleaſantly ſituated in a fruitful plain on the river juſt mentioned. It is ſaid to have taken its name from a ford over the Maine, where the Franks uſed to paſs that river in their incurſions againſt the Saxons. The river divides it into two parts, of which that on the north is called Frankfort, the other Saxenhauſen, from the Saxons who are ſuppoſed to have founded it; but both theſe parts are united by a ſtone bridge of 14 arches, and ſubject to the ſame magiſtrates. It is round, and has no ſuburbs; but is one of the largeſt and beſt fortified cities of Germany. The ſtreets are generally broad, and the houſes built either of red ſtone, or of wood plaiſtered and painted, or covered with ſlates. Here are ſeveral handſome fountains, as well as ſome mineral ſprings and baths. Several of the houſes have pine-trees planted at their doors to denote their being taverns; and the prices of the wines in their cellars are denoted by cyphers painted on the door-poſts. Frankfort was made a free city, and endowed with many valuable privileges by Charles the Great. The government here, as in Breſlau, is in the hands of the Lutherans; but there are alſo many Papiſts and Calviniſts. The Papiſts have the great church of St Bartholomew, with three convents for men, and one for women; but are not allowed to make any proceſſions through the town. The Calviniſts are generally merchants, and very rich; whence it is a common ſaying, that, at Frankfort, the Roman Catholics poſſeſs the churches, the Lutherans the dignities, and the Calviniſts the riches. The laſt, however, are not allowed a church in town, but are obliged to go about three miles off for their worſhip, to a village called *Bokenheim*, in the county

county of Hanau. The Jews are allowed a ſynagogue, but in other reſpects are miſerably ill treated. They are confined to a particular diſtrict of the town; and ſubſiſt by ſelling things to ſtrangers. They are greatly deſpiſed, and employed in the meaneſt drudgeries, being likewiſe obliged to wear a piece of yellow cloth, to diſtinguiſh them from the other inhabitants; and notwithſtanding the extreme humiliation to which they are reduced, theſe poor people are often plundered by their German neighbours during the time of an inſurrection. Their houſes are conſtructed moſtly of wood, in conſequence of which the quarter they inhabit has been often burnt down. The city of Frankfort has a fine territory belonging to it, where the inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly by making wine; the ſoil conſiſting principally of woods and vineyards, with very little arable ground. In this city are exceeding good inns and places of entertainment; the chief of which are called the *Roman Emperor*, and *the King of England*.

Frankfort on the Oder, is a city on the Oder, in the circle of Upper Saxony. It is divided into two parts by the river, which are joined together by a wooden bridge. The houſes are tolerably well built, the ſtreets ſpacious, and they have a pretty good trade in woollen and linen goods, with two fairs a year, which invite a vaſt number of merchants, particularly Jews, from Poland. They have a communication with the Baltic Sea by the river Oder, as well as with the Spree and Havel by canals. Here is an univerſity, erected in 1506 by Joachim I. marquis of Brandenburg. There is likewiſe a handſome market place ſurrounded with very good houſes.

Vienna, the capital of the circle of Auſtria, and of the German empire, is a large and populous city, ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, on a branch of that river, which divides itſelf into many ſtreams, forming ſeveral iſlands. It takes its name from the little river *Wien*, which runs on the eaſt of the city, and falls into the Danube a little below it. The Romans had a colony either directly upon the ſpot where this city ſtands, or very near it, called *Vindomina*, or *Vindobona*; and, from the many Roman antiquities found in this neighbourhood, ſome people are of opinion that Vienna ſtands upon the very individual ſpot. It made no figure, however, till the year 1192, at which time it was enlarged and ſurrounded with a wall by the marquis of Auſtria, who employed for this purpoſe the money extorted from Richard I. for his ranſom. The city itſelf is but of ſmall ſize, being not quite three miles within the walls; but the ſuburbs are much larger than the city. It is now fortified in the modern way, being divided by twelve baſtions, ten of which are towards the land, and two on the north ſide towards the river. Its fortifications have enabled it to ſtand two ſieges by the Turks; in the laſt of which, in 1683, it was reduced to the laſt extremity, and would certainly have been taken, had it not been for the timely interference of John Soboieſki king of Poland. The houſes of this city are generally of ſtone, five or ſix ſtories high, and flat roofed. They have three or four cellars under one another, with an open ſpace in the middle of each arched roof, for the communication of air; and from the lowermoſt of all, there is a tube to the top, to let in air from the ſtreet. The air, however, is far from being either agreeable or wholeſome; ſo that its bad qualities have even become a proverb, and it is ſaid that Vienna is either windy or poiſonous. Indeed, for the greateſt part of the year, the winds blow ſo hard,

that

that it is troubleſome to walk the ſtreets. A remarkable prerogative of the ſovereign here is, that the ſecond floor of every houſe belongs to him, and is aſſigned to whomſoever he thinks proper; and hence there is no part of Germany where lodging is ſo dear as at Vienna. An odd cuſtom prevails here of putting iron bars to all their windows, up to the very tops of the houſes, which makes them all look like as many priſons. The ſtreets are rather narrow than wide; and the city is divided from the ſuburbs by an eſplanade deſcending in an open ground of 300 paces. It has ſix gates, five of which are vaulted through the wall, with draw-bridges over the ditch. At this city the Danube is divided into ſeven branches, which are joined by as many bridges, made of ſeveral thouſands of trees joined cloſe to one another. The high bridge is formed by the croſſing of two ſtreets at equal angles; the foundation of one of which being as high as the tops of the houſes in the other, they have built an arch in the lowermoſt ſtreet, to let the upper paſs over it. The ſpire of the cathedral of St Stephen is accounted the largeſt in Germany; but the building is dark and gloomy, occaſioned by the windows being filled with painted glaſs. St Peter's church is ſuppoſed to ſtand in the ſame place where the *Ara Flaviana* of Domitian formerly ſtood. The churches and convents of the ſeveral religious orders, eſpecially thoſe of the Carmelites, Franciſcans, Benedictines, and Auſtrian friars, are much admired; the model of the laſt being taken from that of the holy houſe of Loretto. On the top of the Jeſuits college is a column of copper, with an image of the Virgin Mary upon a pedeſtal of white ſtone. In one of the ſquares is a handſome monument, erected by the emperor Leopold, in honour of the Holy Trinity, greatly admired for the beauty of its ornaments. In this city the palaces are more numerous than in any other in Germany. There are two belonging to the Imperial family; but the buildings are neither elegant nor uniform, nor are they furniſhed in ſuch a ſumptuous manner as might be expected from one who ought to be accounted the firſt ſovereign in Europe. The houſes of the nobility and great officers of ſtate, however, by their magnificence, may be ſuppoſed to compenſate for the indifferent ſtructure of the Imperial palaces. That of the late prince Eugene particularly is greatly admired by travellers, both for the grandeur of the building, the conveniency of the apartments, and the richneſs of the furniture. The Imperial library is juſtly accounted one of the fineſt in Europe. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which is the choiceſt collection extant of Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe manuſcripts; particularly a fine manuſcript of the new teſtament, done in gold letters upon purple, written 1500 years ago. Lambecius has publiſhed a catalogue of the medals, coins, and other antiquities belonging to the Greeks, Romans, Goths, &c. met with in this library. In this city is an univerſity founded near 400 years ago by Frederic II.; and which is greatly eſteemed. An academy was erected by the emperor Joſeph in 1706, for painting, ſculpture, and architecture. In no place of the world do people live more luxuriouſly than at Vienna; and in this they are plentifully ſupplied by the vaſt produce of the neighbouring country. So great is their extravagance, that people of fortune will have 18 or 20 different ſorts of wine; and a note of every ſort which may be called for is laid upon the plates. Notwithſtanding this abundance of wine, however, it is not reckoned very good, and their beer is ſtill more unpalatable. Auſtria is but indifferently ſup-

plied

plied with cattle; ſo that their ſheep and oxen come from Hungary and the frontiers of Turkey. Though this city be ſo far from the ſea, yet it has in ſome meaſure the advantages of a maritime ſituation. The Danube ſupplies it amply with fiſh; as carp, tench, trouts, pikes, eels, lampreys, &c. They have alſo a fiſh, called ſchieden, which is preferred to ſalmon, and a kind of large fiſh called *hawſons*, reſembling a ſturgeon, about 20 feet long, ſuppoſed to come from the Black Sea. Venice ſupplies them with oyſters and other ſalted and pickled fiſh, as well as with oranges and other fruits which grow in Italy. Here are alſo magazines of naval ſtores, and ſhips of war fitted out, to ſerve againſt the Turks, as has been already mentioned. The city abounds with coffee houſes, where the commonalty read the news-papers, and make free with the character of their ſuperiors as in his country; but none of theſe places are frequented by people of diſtinction. There are a great many good inns, but in general very dear; ſo that ſuch as wiſh to be œconomiſts ought to board in private houſes. The number of inhabitants in this city, including thoſe of the ſuburbs, have been computed at no fewer than 200 000; and the encouragement given them by their ſovereigns has produced a vaſt concourſe of foreigners. After all, however, this capital is far from being pleaſing to thoſe who have viſited it. The narrowneſs of the ſtreets, the meanneſs of the furniture, and, above all, the exceſſive impoſts laid upon all kinds of commodities, are very diſagreeable to ſtrangers; and by reaſon of the laſt, the manufacturing part of the community, are kept in a ſtate of poverty from which they can never retrieve themſelves. During the reign of the late emperor, however, matters began to wear a better aſpect. This ſovereign deſcended from the haughtineſs of his predeceſſors, which not only made them inacceſſible to their own ſubjects, but ridiculous in the eyes of the world. The encouragement given to Proteſtants, and the ſuppreſſion of the idle and inſignificant religious houſes of the Papiſts, however diſagreeable to thoſe blinded by ſuperſtition, muſt undoubtedly prove of the utmoſt utility to the city, and to the country in general.

Univerſities. There are 36 univerſities in this empire; of which 17 are Roman Catholics, as many Proteſtant, and two mixed. There are likewiſe a great number of colleges, ſchools, &c. and many academies for promoting the ſtudy of the fine arts. Of theſe the moſt remarkable are the academies of ſciences at Vienna, Gottingen, Erfurth, Leipſic, Berlin, Hamburg, Geeſon, and Diuſburgh. There is alſo a royal military academy at Berlin; academies for painting at Nuremberg and Dreſden; an academy of fine arts at Augſburg; and a Latin ſociety at Iena. There are a great number of libraries, of which the moſt remarkable are thoſe of Berlin, Halle, Vienna, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weymar, and Leipſic.

Antiquities and Curioſities. Among theſe we may not unjuſtly reckon Vienna itſelf, which in one view may be conſidered as an antiquity, and in another as a modern curioſity. The vaſt Gothic palaces, caſtles, &c. not only here, but throughout the whole German empire, give us a grand idea of the magnificence of former ages. In general, the houſes have the ſame appearance that they had 400 years ago, both in the great cities, and in villages. Their fortifications commonly conſiſt of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half moons. Conſidered as a modern curioſity, it contains the greateſt variety of inhabi-

tants to be met with perhaps any where in the world. Here one may ſee Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Greeks, Germans, French, Italians; every one in the proper habits of their country. The Imperial library already mentioned may alſo be accounted a curioſity, and one of the moſt valuable kind. Moſt of the cities in Germany have tuns of an uncommon bigneſs. That of Heidelberg is the moſt famous, and may juſtly be eſteemed the greateſt cask in the world; being ſuppoſed to contain 800 engliſh hogſheads. It was emptied and deſtroyed by the French in 1688; but the elector, Charles Lewis, cauſed it to be renewed, and of a larger ſize than before. In the apartments of the old quarter of the palace of Berlin is a bed of crimſon velvet, having upwards of 200 cyphers with electoral crowns, all ſet with pearls; and the chairs in the room all done in the ſame taſte. In this bed it is uſual to lodge perſons of the royal blood on their marriage night. Here is alſo a ſtaircaſe, conſtructed in the form of a glacis, in ſuch a manner, that a coach may drive to the top of it. In the library is a collection of 500 bibles, in all different languages and additions. Among theſe is ſhewn the very bible uſed by Charles I. at the time of his execution; and which was preſented as a kind of relic to the elector of Brandenburg, by archbiſhop Juxon, who attended him in his laſt moments. In this library alſo is the firſt bible printed in America; and one in 1450, the firſt printed in the German language. Here likewiſe is a copy of the alcoran of an octagonal figure; the character ſo minute, and the paper ſo thin, that the whole is contained in the ſpace of an inch and a half. The bridge over the Elbe at Dreſden is juſtly accounted one of the moſt beautiful in Europe, being 540 feet long, and 46 broad; and conſiſting of 18 arches, all of hewn ſtone. One ſide of this bridge is appointed for paſſengers going to the new city, and the other for thoſe going to the old. Near the latter is a crucifix of braſs, curiouſly wrought, and about half as big as the life. Near the entrance of the new city is an equeſtrian ſtatue of king Auguſtus II. ſaid to be done by a common ſmith, and erected on a lofty pedeſtal. In the elector's palace is an apartment, called the green vault, formerly the repoſitory of great riches, as well as of many valuable curioſities; but ſo much did this unfortunate city ſuffer from the calamities of war, during the conteſt between the king of Pruſſia and his potent adverſaries, that we can ſcarcely ſuppoſe it now to be in the ſame ſtate. Before that time, however, this vault conſiſted of three arched rooms, containing a prodigious quantity of treaſure, and ſhining all over with gold and precious ſtones. Here were ſeveral ſets of brilliant diamonds, rubies, emeralds, pearls, ſapphires, &c. Every one of theſe ſets was complete, and conſiſted of buttons, buckles, loops for hats, ſwords, hangers, ſword-belts, canes, muffs, ſnuff-boxes, watches, tweezer-caſes, pocket-books, with other expenſive trinkets, ranged with admirable art in caſes of rock-cryſtal. In an apartment of the ſame palace, called *Kunſt Kammer*, or the chamber of knowledge, is a vaſt collection of curioſities of another kind. Here one is firſt entertained with a large collection of prints; then with an immenſe variety of minerals; the third chamber contains things petrified; the fourth, a collection of different ſorts of wood and vegetables; the fifth, a ſmall cabinet of ſkeletons, and other anatomical curioſities; the ſixth contains a variety of the ſkins of land animals, and the ſeventh of fiſhes ſtuffed; the eighth, different kinds of ſhells; the ninth, a collection of curious pieces of amber; the tenth, a

grotto with water ſprings; the eleventh, a collection of curioſities in coral; the twelfth, a variety of ſkeletons of lions, bears, &c. of a great ſize. The city of Hamelen is remarkable for the locks made in its neighbourhood by George II. by which the river Weſer is made navigable up from Minden to this place. This work was not accompliſhed without cutting through ſolid rocks in many places; and a medal was ſtruck on its being finiſhed. At the top of a neighbouring hill, called Koppelberg, is a monument of ſtone at the mouth of a cave, with an inſcription in barbarous Latin verſe, giving an account of a ſtrange accident which happened in 1284. The town, it is ſaid, being at that time infeſted with rats, a ſtranger, on being promiſed a reward, undertook to deſtroy them. Taking a tabrel and pipe, he led the rats, by the charms of his muſic, to the river, which they entered, and were all drowned; but being denied his reward, he left the town in a rage, threatening revenge. Accordingly he returned next year, and by the ſame muſic enticed moſt of the children in the town after him to the mouth of a great cave on the top of the hill of Koppelberg, where he and they entered, but were never heard of more. According to a certain tradition in Tranſylvania, however, theſe children were tranſported thither, and many perſons there own themſelves for their poſterity. In the neighbourhood of Frankfort on the Oder, is a fountain which is ſaid to have the power of petrifying wood.

Commerce and Manufactures. The ſituation of this empire in the heart of Europe, and the many great rivers which run through it into other countries, give it great advantages in the commercial way. Beſides the metals and minerals with which it abounds, the country produces ſaffron, madder, hemp, flax, hops, with a variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, as well as fine fruits, equal to thoſe of Italy. Its exports to other countries are horſes, lean cattle, tobacco, corn, butter, cheeſe, wax, honey, wine, linen and woollen yarn, ribbands, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, metals, goat-ſkins, the fineſt porcelain, and other kinds of earthen ware, mirrors, toys of various kinds, wood for ſhip building and other purpoſes, bombs, cannon, iron ſtoves, and various other wares in iron, ſteel, copper, &c. The manufactures of the empire, as well as thoſe of England, were greatly benefited by the ſuperſtitious cruelty of Louis XIV. in revoking the edict of Nantes; for thus the manufacturers who had ſettled in France were obliged to fly where they could find refuge, and carried their trades along with them. Silks and velvets are now manufactured in the empire, as well as linen and thread, and every thing proper for clothing in great perfection. The porcelain of Meiſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, is thought to be ſuperior to that produced in any other country, thoſe of China and Japan not excepted.

Trading Companies. Of theſe there was only one, eſtabliſhed at Emden by Frederic II. of Pruſſia, under the title of the Aſiatic Company, and that is now totally annihilated by reaſon of the exceſſive taxes laid upon it; ſo that no ſhips have been ſent out ſince the year 1760.

Conſtitution and Government. The whole of this empire, containing about 300 ſovereignties, is under one head, called *the Emperor*, who is accounted the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom; and as ſuch claims a precedency for his ambaſſadors in all Chriſtian courts. He is choſen at Frankfort on the Maine; the electors aſſembling for the purpoſe in the town-houſe, where the original golden bull of the Pope is kept, by which Charles the Great was firſt created Emperor of the Weſt; and

and by this the city of Frankfort is appointed as the place of election. This bull is never ſhewn to ſtrangers, except in preſence of two of the council and the ſecretary. It is a ſmall quarto manuſcript, conſiſting of 42 parchment leaves, with a gold ſeal three inches diameter, weighing 20 ducats, and appended to it by a cord of yellow ſilk. It is written in Latin and Gothic characters, without diphthongs, and kept in a black box, together with two written copies of a tranſlation of it into the German language.

The empire is governed by diets; its ſtanding law being a mixture of the civil and canon laws, along with that derived from the ancient cuſtoms of the Germans, and the various deciſions of the diets themſelves; but each of the ſtates which form the empire have laws peculiar to themſelves. Under the Carlovingian princes the empire was hereditary; but, on the failure of that line, became elective. At firſt alſo all the princes, as well as nobility and deputies of chief cities, had the privilege of voting; but in the time of Henry V. the mode of election was altered in favour of the principal officers of the empire. The empire conſiſts now of nine circles, each of which has one or more directors, who preſide in their aſſemblies, viz. For Weſtphalia, the biſhop of Munſter and duke of Newberg are directors. For Lower Saxony are the marquis of Brandenburg (now king of Pruſſia) and duke of Brunſwick by turns. For Upper Saxony is the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine is the archbiſhop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine are the elector Palatine and biſhop of Worms. For Franconia are the biſhop of Bamburg and marquis of Culemback. For Swabia are the duke of Wittenberg and biſhop of Conſtance. For Bavaria are the elector of Bavaria and archbiſhop of Saltzburg. And, laſtly, Auſtria, its director is the archduke of Auſtria, or his Imperial Majeſty. Two or three circles may meet when one of them is attacked from without, or in any confuſion within. The general diets conſiſt of three bodies, viz. electoral princes, other princes, and imperial cities; but more particularly, in this great empire we may reduce all ſovereignties to theſe five; namely,

I. The emperor, who (being of the Houſe of Auſtria) claims three ſorts of dominion, viz. that of Auſtria, as hereditary; Bohemia, as his right; and Hungary, by election. In his lifetime he cauſeth his own ſon or brother, or (failing of theſe) one of his neareſt kinſmen, to be crowned king of Hungary, afterwards king of Bohemia, and then (if the electors are willing) he is choſen king of the Romans, whereby he is ſucceſſor preſumptive to the empire. The power of the emperor is much impaired by ſeveral capitulations betwixt him and the princes of the empire. It is true, that only he can confer honours, create princes, affranchiſe cities, inſtitute univerſities, and ſuch like: yet, as to the legiſlative power, and that of levying taxes upon the whole empire, that is lodged in the general diet conjunctly with him; and by a late capitulation, he is not to enter into alliance, or make war with any foreign prince, without conſent of the electors. However, if we conſider only his hereditary dominions, he is a powerful prince; and, to ſupport the grandeur of the imperial dignity, he is ſerved by the greateſt princes of the empire, is addreſſed by the auguſt title of *Caſar*; and the ambaſſadors of all crowned heads and free ſtates of Europe give place to thoſe ſent by him, at what foreign court ſoever it be, as has been already obſerved.

II. Electors, who are now nine in number, viz. 1. The archbiſhop of Mentz, who is great chancellor of the empire in Germany, ſits on the emperor's right hand, and formerly crowned the king of Bohemia. 2. The archbiſhop of Triers, or Trevers, who is great chancellor of the empire in France, claims the firſt vote in electing the emperor, and ſits over againſt him in the diet. 3. The archbiſhop of Cologne, who is great chancellor of the empire in Italy, claims the firſt vote in chuſing the king of the Romans, ſets the crown upon his head, and ſits next the emperor. 4. The king of Bohemia (who hath only a ſeat in the election) is cup-bearer, and in the public proceſſion walks next the emperor, or king of the Romans. 5. The duke of Bavaria, who is great ſteward, and in time of the public proceſſion carries the globe before the emperor. 6. The duke of Saxony, who is great marſhal of the empire, and at the public proceſſion carries the naked ſword before the emperor. 7. The marquis of Brandenburg, (now king of Pruſſia) who is great chamberlain, and at the public proceſſion carries the ſceptre before the emperor. 8. The prince Palatine of the Rhine, who is great treaſurer, and in the proceſſion at coronations ſcattereth medals among the people. 9. The duke of Brunſwick, Lunenburg, Hanover, George-Lewis, and king of Great Britain, &c. ſon of Ernеſtus Auguſtus, who was added to the electoral college in the year 1693, and who claims the poſt of arch-treaſurer. Theſe princes have much greater authority, and enjoy much more ample privileges than the other princes of the empire. To them belongs not only a right of electing the emperor and king of the Romans, as aforeſaid, but alſo ſome allow them even a depoſing power. When the emperor calls a diet, he is obliged to aſk their advice; and during an interreign, two of them, viz. the electors of Saxony and Bavaria, have power to govern the empire; the juriſdiction of the former extending over the northern, and that of the other over the ſouthern circles.

III. Eccleſiatic Princes, who, beſides the firſt three electors, are chiefly theſe following, viz. archbiſhop of Saltzburg (great maſter of the Teutonic Order), the biſhops of Liege, Munſter, Spire, Worms, Wurtſburg, Straſburg, Oſnaburg, Bamberg, Paderborn, &c. and many abbots and abbeſſes, who are abſolute over the temporality of their benefices. The election to their various dignities belongs wholly to their ſeveral chapters; and they govern the people in ſubjection to them as ſovereign princes, without any cognizance of a higher power.

IV. Secular Princes, who are chiefly the dukes of Lunenburg, Wirtemburg, Mecklenburg, Saxe Lauenburg, &c. marquis of Baden, Culembach, &c. the landgrave of Heſſe, prince of Eaſt Frieſland, Naſſau, Anhault, &c. counts of Solms, Averſburg, &c. and many other dukes, marquiſſes, and landgraves, as alſo ſome earls and barons, who exerciſe a ſovereign power over theſe in their own dominions.

V. Free Cities, which are either Imperial or Hanſe towns. Imperial cities are thoſe which bear the eagle of the empire in their arms, and have right to ſend their deputies to the diet of the empire. Hanſe towns are thoſe, which, about the end of the 13th century, entered into a firm league of mutually aſſiſting one another in time of diſtreſs; as alſo in carrying on ſuch a regular commerce as might univerſally tend to their advantage, and the public good of the empire; which ſociety increaſed to the number of 80 cities, who enjoyed great privileges,

leges, and exercised a peculiar jurisdiction among themselves; for the better administration of which they were divided into four circles, distinguished by the names of four principal cities, in which were established their courts of judicature, viz. Lubec, Cologne, Brunswic, and Dantzic. But this society has been on the declining hand these 200 years, and is now become very inconsiderable.

The chief courts in Germany for hearing and determining the great causes of the empire are two, viz. the Imperial Chamber, and Chamber of Vienna. 1. The Imperial Chamber, consisting of fifty judges, called *Assessors*, whereof the emperor appoints the president, and four of the principal officers; each of the electors chusing one; and the rest being nominated by the other princes of the empire, whose business is to determine all disputes which arise from time to time between the the princes; as also other causes brought thither by appeal from inferior courts. The seat of this judicature was formerly at Spires, but now at Wetslar in Hesse. 2. The Chamber of Vienna, whose office it is also to decide all causes brought to it by appeals from inferior courts, and which claims the same authority with the chamber of Spires. The seat of this court is the emperor's palace, and either he himself or his deputy sits as chief, being assisted by a competent number of judges, whereof several are professors of the Protestant religion. In both these courts, the emperor, as sovereign judge and president, pronounces sentence when there in person: and in his absence those deputed by him, who representing himself, are allowed to carry the imperial sceptre, as a mark of their dignity. In particular courts they follow the laws of the empire, which consist in many ancient constitutions; the golden bull, the pacification of Passaw, as also the treaties of Westphalia; in the Saxon law established by Charlemain, and the Roman by the emperor Justinian; which last they observe whensoever the Saxon has not been received. All princes, states, and members of the empire have, and actually exercise sovereign power within their own territories, except in some particular cases, wherein people may appeal, either to the Imperial Chamber of Spires, or that at Vienna, commonly called the *Aulic Council.*

Though the emperor cannot make peace or war without consent of the electors, as has been already said, yet when once that consent is obtained, every prince must supply the number of men and sum of money he was assessed at, for the purposes of the empire, though perhaps he may in his private capacity take a different side. Hence, there have been instances of princes fighting on both sides; as particularly George II. of Britain, who, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furnish his quota against the house of Austria, and likewise against the king of Prussia, at the very time he was fighting for both. In case of any disobedience on the part of a prince of the empire, the delinquent undergoes a kind of excommunication, which is called the being *put to the ban of the empire*, and this the late king of Prussia had the misfortune to experience. The original form of this excommunication was very curious; sentence being pronounced in these words by the emperor, "I declare your children fatherless, your wife a widow, and send you, *in the name of the Devil*, to the four corners of the world!" After this strange sentence, the princes of Germany are obliged to make war on the offender; and even before matters come to this extremity, the prince or princess to whom

whom the execution of the ſentence is committed, may ſend their troops to live at free quarters in the delinquent's country.

In the time of Charles VI. a proviſion was made for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant, whether male or female. This was called the *Pragmatic Sanction*; and was ſtrongly guaranteed by almoſt all the powers of Europe, notwithſtanding which, it has been frequently diſputed by other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſionally ſupported by France. This houſe indeed has often attempted to overthrow the liberties or the Germanic body; but of late has met with ſuch a vigorous oppoſition from the king of Pruſſia, that there ſeems now to be little danger from that quarter.

Revenues. Thoſe of the emperor, notwithſtanding his high titles, are very inconſiderable; ariſing only from ſome ſmall fiefs in the Black Foreſt, and amounting to about 5 or L. 6000 *per annum*. Thoſe of Auſtria, however, are very great, being eſtimated at no leſs than ſeven millions. The revenues of Pruſſia are likewiſe very large. From the magnificence of the German courts, people are apt to be miſled with regard to the incomes of their princes; many of whom are far from being rich. Their ſplendor ariſes from the great value of money in that country, and conſequently the low price of proviſions and manufactures.

Military Strength. This is determined by a matriculation book kept by the elector of Mentz, in which are recorded the various aſſeſſments of men and money laid upon every ſtate and prince in the empire. The contributions in money are called *Roman Months*, from the monthly aſſeſſments paid to the emperors when they formerly viſited Rome. From this matriculation roll, however, we are not to ſuppoſe that an account of the whole force of the German empire can be obtained; as the aſſeſſments upon each prince are greatly lower than what they might be ſuppoſed to maintain; and it has been computed, that the ſecular princes may maintain 379,000, and the eccleſiaſtical ones 74,500 men. The following table exhibits theſe computations at one view.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	6000
The elector of Triers	6000
The elector of Cologne	6000
The biſhop of Munſter	8000
The biſhop of Liege	8000
The archbiſhop of Saltzburg	8000
The biſhop of Wurtzburg	2000
The biſhop of Bamberg	5000
The biſhop of Paderborn	3000
The biſhop of Oſnaburg	2500
The abbot of Fulda	6000
The other biſhoprics of the empire	6000
The abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire	8000
Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes	74,500
The emperor, for Germany	30000
for Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia	30000
for Auſtria, and other dominions	30000
	90000

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Brought forward —	90000
The king of Pruſſia - - - -	40000
The elector of Saxony - - -	25000
The elector Palatine - - - -	15000
The duke of Wirtemburg - - -	15000
The landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel - - -	15000
The prince of Baden - - - -	10000
The elector of Hanover - - -	30000
The duke of Holſtein - - -	12000
The duke of Mecklenburgh - - -	15000
The prince of Anhalt - - -	6000
The prince of Lawenburg - - -	6000
The elector of Bavaria - - - -	30000
The dukes of Saxony - - -	10000
The prince of Naſſau - - -	10000
The other princes and imperial towns - -	50000
The ſecular princes - - -	379,000
The eccleſiaſtical princes - -	74,500
Total	453,500

From this calculation it appears that the empire of Germany is ſtill very potent; and, if united, could ſcarce be oppoſed by any power in Europe; but the diviſions, and oppoſite intereſts which prevail among their princes, render the emperor, as head of the Germanic body, of very little conſequence. As a private prince, however, he is ſtill very powerful; and the army of the late emperor was computed at 200,000 men.

Imperial Titles. The Emperor of Germany, as ſuch, has the precedency of all the princes of Europe, as has been already mentioned. As ſovereign of Auſtria, he is only an arch-duke; but his titles of principalities, dukedoms, &c. as arch-duke are very numerous.

Arms. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings in a field of gold; and the Imperial crown ſeen over its head. On its breaſt is an eſcutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jeruſalem, Arragon, Anjou, Guelders, Brabant, and Barr.

Orders of Knighthood. Every independent prince of any conſequence in Germany claims the right of inſtituting orders, but the emperor does not account them authentic, unleſs confirmed by himſelf. The principal are, 1. The order of the *Golden Fleece*, inſtituted in 1429 by Philip duke of Burgundy, on occaſion of his marriage with his third wife. The kings of Spain confer this order as well as the emperors of Germany, both of them being deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy; and it is ſtill accounted one of the moſt honourable orders in Europe. At firſt it conſiſted of thirty knights, beſides the ſovereign; but now there are two branches, the king of Spain being ſovereign of the one, and the emperor of the other; and all of them muſt prove their noble deſcent from the 12th century. The motto is, *Pretium non vile laborum.* 2. The Tuetonic Order is one of the moſt powerful in Europe. It took its riſe from ſome religious Germans employed in the cruſades; who being at Jeruſalem, took the name of *Teutonic Knights*, "or brethren of the hoſpital of our lady of the Germans at Jeruſalem." About the year 1230, they were invited into Pruſſia by Conrad, duke of Swabia; and in a ſhort time conquered the country for themſelves. Afterwards, by con-

teſts

teſts among themſelves, they loſt their power, and Pruſſia was conquered by Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, who abdicated the grand-maſterſhip of the order, on his abjuring the Popiſh religion The order is now divided into two branches; the Papiſts, who have a houſe at Miggenheim in Germany, and the Proteſtants, who have one at Utrecht. The former are obliged to take an oath of celibacy; and this branch wear the enſign round the neck, pendent to a gold chain. 3. It is not well known at what time the order of the red eagle was inſtituted. It is generally conferred upon officers, and the marquis of Bareith is ſovereign. 4. The Order of Sincerity was inſtituted in 1690 by Frederic III. marquis of Brandenburg, and John George, elector of Saxony, on the termination of ſome diſputes which had taken place between them. The knights wear a bracelet of gold, having on one ſide the names of the two princes, with this motto, *Amité ſincere;* on the other are two armed hands joined together, and placed on two ſwords, with two palm branches croſſed, with this motto, *Unis par jamais.* 5. The Great Order of Wirtemberg, viz. that of the Chace was inſtituted in 1702, by the duke, and improved in 1719. They have a ſtar embroidered on the left ſide of the coat, of the ſame figure as the badge; in the middle a green circle, with the motto, *Amicitiæ, Virtutiſque Fœdus.* They have a feſtival on St Hubert's day, he being the patron of ſportſmen. 6. In 1704 was inſtituted the Order of the Noble Paſſion; of which the founder, the duke of Saxe Weiſſenfels, is ſovereign. It is required of each member of this order to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed ſoldiers in the ſervice of the duke. 7. The Order of the Death's Head, firſt inſtituted in 1652, was revived by Louiſa Elizabeth, widow of Philip, duke of Saxe Metſburg. The members of this order are all females; the ſovereign being a princeſs of that houſe; and none can be received but women of virtue and merit, whatever be their birth or fortune. They are forbid all kinds of luxuries, theatrical amuſements, and gaming. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, ſurmounted with a croſs patee black; above this is another croſs compoſed of five jewels, by which it is ſuſpended to a black ribband and edged with white, and, on the ribband, the words, *Memento mori* worn at the breaſt. 8. The ſame year the Order of St Hubert was revived, by the elector Palatine, which was firſt inſtituted by one of the dukes of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St Hubert's day in 1447. All the knights have penſions or employments in the army. 9. The Order of St Rupert was inſtituted in 1701, by the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, in honour of the founder and patron of the See he held, and as the apoſtle of his country. This order is in conſiderable eſteem; the archbiſhop being the richeſt and moſt powerful prince of Bavaria next to the elector. 10. The Order of St George, the defender of the immaculate conception, was inſtituted in 1729 by Albert the elector of Bavaria. The knights are obliged to prove their nobility, both by father and mother's ſide, for five generations. 11. The Orders of the Golden Lion, and of Merit, were lately inſtituted by the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. The former is conferred principally on general officers, but is both a military and civil order. The badge of the latter is a gold croſs enamelled white, with the following motto in the centre, *Pro virtute et fidelitate.* It is worn at the button hole of the coat, pendant to a blue ribband edged with ſilver.

Hiſtory. In former ages, the country which we now call Germany

was inhabited by many different nations, of whom hiſtory makes no mention, till about 211 B. C. when Marcellus, the celebrated Roman general, defeated the Gæſatæ, a German nation ſeated on the banks of the Rhine. The next account of them is in the incurſion of the Cimbri and Teutones, when many nations, from Germany, properly ſo called, poured in upon the fertile and cultivated countries to the ſouthward, in company with theſe barbarians. When the Romans, by extending their conqueſts to the confines of what they called Germany, had become ſomewhat better acquainted with its inhabitants, they divided the country into two regions, viz. Belgic, or Lower Germany, which lay to the ſouthward of the Rhine, and Proper, or High Germany, which lay to the north. The former lay between the rivers Seine and Rhine; the latter beyond the Rhine and Danube. In High Germany we find the following nations mentioned by hiſtorians as ſituated between the Rhine and the Elbe. 1. The Upper and Lower Chauci, ſeparated from one another by the river Viſurges, now the Weſer. Their country contained thoſe now called Bremen, Lunenburg, Frieſland, and Groningen. The Upper Chauci had the Cheruſci, and the Lower, the Chamavi, on the ſouth-eaſt, and the German Ocean on the north-weſt. The Friſij, likewiſe divided into the Upper and Lower, were ſeparated from the Lower Chauci by the river Amiſia, now the Ems, and from one another by a branch of the Rhine; but their country, called at preſent *Frieſland*, now makes part of the United States. Beyond the river Iſela, now the Iſel, which bounded the country of the Friſij, lay the Bructeri, whoſe country is now known by the name of *Broekmorland*; and the Marſi inhabited the country about the river Luppe. On the other ſide of that river lay the Uſipij, or Uſipetes; though theſe were a wandering nation, and frequently met with in other places. Next to theſe were the Juones, who inhabited the preſent duchy of Juliers, between the Maeſe and the Rhine. Heſſe, Thuringia, and the Hartzian mountains, were inhabited by the Catti, one of the moſt warlike nations in Germany; their country being bounded by the Rhine and Weſer. Among theſe were comprehended the Mattiaci, whoſe capital is by ſome thought to have been Marpurg, by others Baden. Next to theſe were the Seducij, bordering upon Suabia; the Nariſci, or ancient inhabitants of Northgow, whoſe capital was Nuremberg; and the Marcommanni, whoſe country reached from the Rhine to the head of the Danube, and to the Neckar. This people afterwards ſettled in Bohemia and Moravia, under their general, or king, Maroboduus. Some of them alſo took up their reſidence in Gaul, whence they drove the Boij, who had ſeated themſelves in that country. The Hermanduri were ſeated on the other ſide of the Danube, and between it and the Rhine, poſſeſſing the country now called Miſnia in Upper Saxony; but ſome think their territory extended much farther, reaching to the kingdom of Bohemia, or even beyond it. On the north of the Danube was another ſeat of the Marcommanni lying along the Elbe. The Quadi were ſeated next to Bohemia; their territories extending from the Danube to Moravia, and the northern parts of Auſtria. They were anciently known by the name of *Suevi*, as well as Quadi; and, under the former title, forced their way to Spain, and ſettled a kingdom there. The Baſtarnæ were ſeparated from the Quadi by the river Granna, now the Gran, which falls into the Danube; and by the Carpathian mountains, called from them *Alpes Baſtarnicæ*. The country of theſe people indeed made

part of the European Sarmatia, and was without the limits of Germany, properly ſo called; but they were ſo frequently in league with the Germans, that they were generally accounted a German nation by all ancient writers.

In the Lower Germany of the ancients, the nations belonging to modern Germany were the Ubij, whoſe territory lay between the Rhine and the Maeſe; the capital of which was Cologne; the Treviri, whoſe capital was Triers, formerly *Auguſta Trevirorum*; the Tribocei, whoſe capital was *Argentoratum*, now Straſburg; the Nemetes and Vangiones, who inhabited the diſtricts of Worms, Spires, and Mentz.

The country called Vindelicia was ſituated between the Upper and Lower Germany of the ancients; its capital being called Auguſta Vindelicorum, now Augſburg. Below this lay Noricum and Pannonia; the former divided into Noricum Ripenſe and Mediterraneum. It contained a great part of the Auſtrian provinces, together with Styria, Carinthia, Tyrol, Bavaria, and ſome others. Pannonia contained the preſent kingdom of Hungary, and was divided into the Upper and Lower; extending from Illyricum to the Danube, and the mountains called *Cætii* in the neighbourhood of Vindebona, now Vienna.

Beſides theſe the following nations inhabited ſome parts of the preſent Germany, viz. the Longobardi, or Lombards, ſo called, according to ſome, from their wearing long beards; according to others, from their conſiſting of two different nations, the Bardi and the Lingones. They dwelt along the river Elbe, and were bounded to the ſouthward by the country of the Chauci, already mentioned. The Sennones inhabited alſo part of the country lying in the neighbourhood of the ſame river; and the Vandals inhabited the preſent diſtricts of Mecklenburg and Brandenburg. Beſides theſe we find another nation, named the Scordiſci, who inhabited the banks of the Danube. Theſe were very warlike and powerful; inſomuch, that they once cut off a whole Roman army; one ſingle perſon only having the good luck to make his eſcape. Having then ravaged Macedon and Theſſaly, they proceeded as far as the Adriatic ſea; but were by another Roman general driven back with great ſlaughter into their own country. Metellus afterwards weakened them ſo much, that they were obliged to repaſs the Danube, which thenceforward became the boundary of the Roman empire; notwithſtanding which they paſſed the river every winter on the ice, committing dreadful ravages; and that, as early as the war with Jugurtha, even when the Romans were in the height of their reputation for martial exploits.

It was not till the time of Julius Cæſar, however, that the Romans had any formal wars with the German nations. That conqueror having eaſily found a pretence of attacking them, firſt overthrew one of their princes, named Arioviſtus; after which, carrying his arms into the territories of the Uſipetes and ſome others, who had joined in a confederacy againſt him, he defeated them with ſuch ſlaughter, that 400,000 are ſaid to have periſhed in one battle. After this he built a bridge over the Rhine, with a reſolution to ſpread the terror of the Roman name through the moſt diſtant parts of Germany. But the civil wars, which took place immediately after, prevented him from accompliſhing his purpoſe at that time, as his aſſaſſination did ever afterwards.

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The check which Cæsar had given to these barbarians did not long continue to have any effect upon them. In no very long time Italy itself was invaded by the *Rhæti*, a nation inhabiting the country of the Grisons, who committed the most dreadful devastations. It was a maxim with these wretches to destroy all the males, whether young or old; and in consequence of this cruel resolution, when they happened to take women with child, they consulted their augurs to know whether the child was male or female; and if they pronounced it to be a male, the mother was immediately massacred. These were utterly defeated by Drusus and Tiberius, afterwards emperor; as well as the Vindelici and Norici; so that they were obliged to submit to the Roman yoke; and on this occasion the city of Augsburg was founded, as well as that now known by the name of Memminghen. The Pannonians had already been subdued by Agrippa; but on the present occasion they revolted. By Tiberius, however, they were once more so entirely defeated, that they were forced to deliver up their arms, give hostages for their good behaviour, and put the Romans in possession of all their towns and forts. Tiberius used them with great severity; plundering their cities, laying waste their fields, and sending most of their youth into other countries.

The Romans having begun thus successfully, determined to be satisfied with nothing less than the conquest of the whole country. Drusus, pushing his good fortune, performed many great exploits, vanquishing the enemy in every engagement, taking their towns, and obliging them to submit implicitly to his pleasure. To keep the conquered countries in awe, he built two forts, the one at the confluence of the Alme and Lyppe, the other in the country of the Catti on the Rhine. On this occasion also he made a celebrated canal, known long after by the name of *Fossa Drusiana*, to convey the waters of the Rhine into the Sale. It was eight miles long, and designed to convey the Roman troops into the countries of the Chauci and Frisij; for which it was very convenient. At last, having subdued all the nations from the Rhine to the Elbe, an end was put to his conquests and his life, by a violent fever. Tiberius, who succeeded him, though he did not equal the exploits of Drusus, yet reduced the power of the Germans so far, that they sued again and again for peace. But Augustus, bent on subduing the whole at once, refused to accept the submission of one nation without that of all the rest; and as the Catti could not be induced to submit to a foreign yoke, the war was carried on for 18 years longer, though in a languid manner.

The German nations now, by the intercourse they had with the Romans, began to perceive the advantages of a civilized life beyond that of their savage and barbarous modes of living to which they had been accustomed. Many of them therefore had already quitted their forests, in order to imitate their conquerors in cultivating the ground and living peaceably; but, unluckily, one Quintilius Varus being sent to command the Roman troops, oppressed the natives in such a manner, that a general revolt ensued, under the conduct of Arminius, a young nobleman of extraordinary parts. By him Varus, with his troops, were entirely cut off; but the Romans could easily afford another army. Tiberius and Germanicus were sent against the revolters, and the former being soon after raised to the empire, Germanicus was left to command alone. His arms were attended with the greatest suc-

ceſs; and Arminius now found himſelf overmatched. He continued to defend himſelf, however, with ſurpriſing valour and conduct, but would at laſt have been obliged to ſubmit, had not the jealouſy of Tiberius induced him to recal Germanicus, and not allow him any more to return to that country.

After the departure of Germanicus, the northern nations were not for a long time moleſted by the Romans. Arminius carried on a long and ſucceſsful war with the Marcommanni, whom he at laſt overcame, and obliged to apply to the Romans for aſſiſtance; but, either thro' inattention, or the want of a proper general to conduct the buſineſs, the fugitive prince was not reſtored. This ſucceſs proved fatal to Arminius; for, being puffed up with ambition, and making an attempt to render himſelf deſpotic, he was murdered by his countrymen. His memory, however, was held in great veneration by them, and Tacitus informs us that in his time they ſtill celebrated his name in their ſongs.

In the reign of Claudius, the Germans were once more in danger of being ſubdued by Corbulo, juſtly accounted one of the greateſt generals of his age; but from him they were ſaved by the jealouſy of Claudius, as they had been before from Germanicus by the jealouſy of Tiberius. In the reign of Veſpaſian a dreadful revolt took place among the nations of Lower Germany which had ſubmitted to Rome; particularly the Batavians, and others in that neighbourhood. They were ſubdued at laſt, but with ſo much difficulty, that it probably encouraged the Dacians, a nation ſituated on both ſides of the Danube, to invade the empire. Theſe proved more formidable than any of the reſt; inſomuch, that Domitian was obliged to become their tributary. This inglorious circumſtance was highly offenſive to the warlike Trajan, who refuſed payment, alledging that he had never been conquered by the Dacians. An immediate war was the conſequence of this anſwer; a bloody battle enſued, and the Romans, as uſual, got the victory. On this occaſion, however, it coſt them dear, as the wounded on their part were ſo numerous, that they had not linen to bind up all their wounds. The emperor was ſo touched with the ſituation of theſe unhappy people, that he generouſly aſſiſted them with the linen of his own wardrobe. After this he purſued the Dacian monarch, Decebalus, from place to place, and at laſt reduced him to the neceſſity of proſtrating himſelf on the ground before him as his vaſſal, conſenting to diſmantle all his cities and fortreſſes, and to promiſe never to moleſt the Romans any more. Theſe terms were not long kept: In a few years Decebalus invaded the territories of the Jazyges, a nation in alliance with Rome; and on Trajan's reſenting this breach of treaty, he attempted to get him murdered. By this the emperor was ſo exaſperated, that he determined to make a thorough conqueſt of the country; and therefore built a bridge over the Danube, in order to have the more ready acceſs to it upon all occaſions. This was ſtiled by the ancients the moſt wonderful of all the works of this mighty conqueror. Two caſtles were built to defend it, one on each ſide of the Danube, and all this was accompliſhed in the ſpace of one ſummer.

In the year 106, the emperor, having got every thing ready for his expedition, paſſed the Danube, and, overcoming all reſiſtance, reduced Decebalus to ſuch ſtraits, that he put an end to his own life, in order to

avoid falling into the hands of his enemies, after which his kingdom was reduced to a Roman province, ſeveral caſtles built in it, and garriſons placed in them to keep the country in awe. After the death of this emperor, however, the Roman power began to decline, and the German nations to become more formidable than ever. The province of Dacia indeed was held by the Romans till the reign of Gallienus; but Adrian, the ſucceſſor of Trajan, cauſed the arches of the bridge built by his predeceſſor over the Danube to be broken down, leſt the barbarians ſhould avail themſelves of it to invade the Roman territories the more eaſily. The Marcommanni and Quadi now began to make terrible inroads, and gave the emperor Marcus Aurelius a great overthrow; which, with other calamities that happened about the ſame time, reduced him to ſuch ſtraits, that he was obliged to ſell all his plate and rich furniture to defray the expences of government. At another time it is ſaid that he would have been cut off by the Quadi with his whole army, had it not been for the prayers of a legion of Chriſtians he had in his army, on which a ſtorm of thunder and lightning diſcharged itſelf on the barbarians, while the clouds poured forth ſuch quantities of water as afforded an ample ſupply to the Roman ſoldiers, who were fainting with thirſt. At laſt theſe formidable enemies were reduced by this emperor to ſuch ſtraits, that their country would probably have been reduced to a Roman province, had not Marcus Aurelius been obliged by the revolt of one of his generals to relinquiſh the enterpriſe. After his death the German nations became more and more formidable, inſomuch, that the Romans, inſtead of being able to invade, and attempt the conqueſt of them, as formerly, had the utmoſt difficulty to preſerve their own territories from their continual incurſions. By degrees theſe incurſions became ſo frequent, and ſo powerful, that the empire ſunk under them, and the weſtern part of it totally failed in 476. From this time the hiſtory of Germany affords nothing authentic till the reign of Charles the Great, who conquered both it and Italy; uniting theſe countries, along with France, in one great empire, of which he was ſolemnly crowned head by the Pope in the year 800. The Imperial dignity continued in his family till the year 880, when the different princes, having ſet aſide the Carlovingian line, raiſed to the throne Arnulph king of Bohemia. Since that time the empire has been elective, and the Imperial dignity poſſeſſed by ſeveral different families, of which the principal were the Houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. For ſome time, however, theſe elected ſovereigns had not the authority of the Popes for aſſuming the title of Emperor, and therefore contented themſelves with that of *Kings*. But, in 961, Otho, who at that time enjoyed the regal title in Germany, having overcome and ſeized the dominions of Berengarius king of Italy, was the following year crowned emperor by the Pope. On this occaſion he received the Imperial crown from his Holineſs, and kiſſed his feet with great humility; after which they both went to the altar of St Peter, and took a mutual oath, the Pope to be faithful to the emperor, and to give no aſſiſtance to his enemies; and the emperor to conſult the welfare of the church, and to reſtore to it all the patrimony granted by former emperors. Beſides this, Otho beſtowed very rich preſents on the Holy See. He ordained that the election of Popes ſhould be according to the canons; that the elected Pope ſhould not be conſecrated till he had publicly promiſed, in preſence of the emperor's commiſſaries, to obſerve every thing formerly ſpecified with regard

gard to the rights of his Imperial Majeſty; that theſe commiſſaries ſhould reſide at Rome, and make a report every year how juſtice was adminiſtered by the judges; and, in caſe of any complaints, the commiſſaries ſhould lay them before the Pope; but if he neglected to intimate them, the Imperial commiſſaries might then do what they pleaſed.

This ſuperiority aſſumed by Otho was by no means agreeable to the Pope. The former was ſcarce gone when his Holineſs (John XII.) broke the oath he had juſt taken with ſo much ſolemnity, entering firſt into an alliance with the count of Tuſcany to expel the Germans, and then with the Hungarians to invade Italy. His treachery, however, did not long go unpuniſhed. Otho quickly returned with part of his army, and aſſembled a council of biſhops. The Pope did not think proper to make his appearance at this ſacred convention, for which the emperor pretended great concern. The biſhops imputed his abſence to what was undoubtedly the true cauſe, viz. a conſciouſneſs of his guilt. Upon inquiry into the nature of his crimes, they informed Otho that he had given himſelf up to the company of lewd women, with whom he had filled the palace; that he had ordained a biſhop in a ſtable; caſtrated a cardinal; and drunk the devil's health. As he ſtill continued to abſent himſelf, a ſentence of depoſition for theſe and other crimes was formally paſſed upon him; and Leo, his principal ſecretary, though a layman, elected Pope in his ſtead.

It is not to be ſuppoſed that the new Pope would be ungrateful to the perſon who had raiſed him to this high dignity. He conferred indeed great privileges upon him; granting a bull, by which the emperors of Germany ſhould always have the right of electing the Popes, as well as inveſting archbiſhops and biſhops; and that none ſhould dare to conſecrate a biſhop without leave from his Imperial Majeſty. On the departure of Otho, however, the whole of this fine fabric was ruined; Leo was inſtantly driven out, and Pope John reſtored; but his career was ſoon ſtopped. In the month of May 964, happening to be ſurpriſed in bed with a lady, the *devil*, according to the hiſtorians of theſe times, but more probably the lady's huſband, gave him ſuch a blow on the head, that he died in eight days.

After the death of John, a cardinal-deacon, named Benedict, was elected to the papal dignity; but he was depoſed by Otho, and baniſhed to Hamburgh. The emperor was no ſooner gone than the Italians revolted as uſual, but were now ſeverely puniſhed; ſeveral laws made for the better regulation of the city of Rome; privileges granted to the Venetians; and young Otho, then only 13 years of age, declared ſucceſſor to his father. After this Otho engaged in a war with the emperor of Conſtantinople, on account of his refuſing, with the moſt ſhameful circumſtances of treachery and perfidy, to conſent to a match between the young emperor and his ſtep daughter Theophania. In this he was ſucceſsful; the princeſs was given up, and the marriage ſolemnized with the greateſt pomp in the year 969.

Thus was the Imperial dignity raiſed by Otho to a greater degree of ſplendor than it had ever been by Charles the Great; for the latter was certainly in ſubjection to the Popes; while Otho had rendered himſelf their ſuperior, and attached Italy to his dominions, in ſuch a manner, that it continued to make part of the Imperial territories for more than 500 years.

For ſome time the German hiſtory becomes the ſame with that of

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Italy. Indeed the Italians ſhewed themſelves on all occaſions ſo fickle, and the Popes ſo impatient of the reſtraints laid upon them, that they gave the emperors ſufficient employment. A law made by Otho II. muſt give us a ſtrange opinion of their character. He ordained that no Italian ſhould be believed, even upon his oath; and that, in all diſputed caſes, where the matter could not be decided otherwiſe than by witneſſes, the parties ſhould have recourſe to a duel. In the reign of Otho III. who aſcended the Imperial throne in 983, the diſturbances in Italy were carried to the utmoſt extremity. One Cincius, called alſo Creſcentius, who had formed a ſcheme of reviving the ancient Roman commonwealth, in the courſe of his attempts, murdered one Pope, and ſet up another; but being oppoſed by a ſtronger faction aſſiſted by the emperor, his Pope was driven out of the city, as well as himſelf. Some time after, however, he found means to retrieve his affairs, and renewed his ſchemes of a republic; but finding himſelf again oppoſed by the Pope (John XV.) he drove him out of the city, though, on hearing that he had applied to the emperor for aſſiſtance, he was fain to recal him. A few years after, thinking himſelf able to ſupport his cauſe, he again revolted, and expelled a ſecond Pope, raiſing up one of his own creatures to that dignity. But this laſt piece of inſolence proved fatal to him. The emperor, enraged at his continual diſturbance, marched with a powerful army to Rome, beſieged and took it by aſſault, cauſed the head of Creſcentius to be cut off, and his Pope to be thrown headlong from the caſtle of St Angelo, after having cruelly pulled out his eyes, and cut off his noſe.

Henry, duke of Bavaria, who ſucceeded Otho III. found himſelf in the ſame predicament with his predeceſſors. Ardouin, marquis of Ivrea, had aſſumed the title of king of Italy, and it was neceſſary to enter into a war with him. The uſurper was no ſooner reduced, than a new conteſt among the Popes required the preſence of the emperor; but unluckily, before he arrived, one of the rivals had got the better of the other without his aſſiſtance, and he had not yet been conſecrated emperor by any Pope. There was a neceſſity therefore for his receiving the Imperial crown from the hands of the new Pontiff; and the latter was inſtantly ſenſible of the advantage he had gained. Inſtead of promiſing allegiance to the emperor, he retorted the queſtion upon him. "Will you, ſays he, be faithful to me and my ſucceſſors in every thing?" The emperor anſwered in the affirmative, and from this moment loſt in reality that ſuperiority which Otho I. had eſtabliſhed, and his ſucceſſors ſo vigorouſly maintained. As yet, however, nothing appeared derogatory to his authority; he was permitted to aſſert his ſovereignty as much as he pleaſed in words, and died in peace in the year 1024.

The death of Henry was followed by a ſtrong conteſt for the ſucceſſion. Conrad, being choſen emperor of Germany, was declared king of Italy by the archbiſhop of Milan; while a party of the nobles made an offer of the crown to Robert king of France, or his ſon Hugh. But this offer being declined, and likewiſe another to William duke of Guienne, Conrad was crowned king of Italy, in 1026, at Monza; and next year received the imperial crown from Pope John XX. in preſence of Canute the Great, king of England, Denmark and Norway, and Rodolph III. king of Burgundy. His reign was ſimilar to that of his predeceſſors; the Italians revolted, the Pope was depoſed, the revolters ſubdued, and his Holineſs reſtored; after which the emperor returned

returned to Germany, and died in 1039. Under his ſucceſſor Henry III. matters began to wear a different aſpect. At firſt indeed the affairs of the Popes went on as uſual. Sylveſter II. was driven out by Benedict, and he by John, biſhop of Sabinum, who aſſumed the title of Sylveſter III. Benedict was reinſtated in three months, and excommunicated his rivals; but ſoon after reſigned the papal chair for a ſum of money. In a ſhort time, however, he reclaimed it; and thus there were at once three Popes, whoſe ſcandalous lives would undoubtedly have diſgraced the office they held, had it been poſſible to act below its dignity. At laſt a prieſt, named Gratian, had the dexterity, partly by perſuaſion, and partly by preſents, to make them all reſign their ſhare of the papacy; in conſideration of which ſignal ſervice, the people of Rome choſe him Pope, by the title of Gregory VI. As the emperor had not been conſulted in this election, he took the uſual method of teſtifying his reſentment; viz. marching with an army into Italy, depoſing the Pope, and raiſing up another, who conſecrated him and his empreſs. Thus matters ſeemed to be reſtored to their former ſtate; but Henry had ſcarce returned to Germany, when he was informed of the death of his Pope, Clement II. He was ſucceeded by Damaſus II. who alſo dying ſoon after, Henry nominated to the Papal chair Bruno biſhop of Toul. This Bruno, who was the emperor's relation, being a modeſt and pious prelate, threw off his pontificals at the perſuaſion of Hildebrand, a monk of Cluny, who ſuggeſted to him that the emperor by himſelf had no right to appoint a Pope. Having prevailed thus far, the ambitious monk went to Rome along with Bruno, who had conſented to go as a private perſon, and be re-elected When arrived in that city, Hildebrand retarded as much as he could the election, at the time that he perſuaded Bruno he had done every thing in his power to promote it, and that he had in reality been the chief inſtrument of his promotion. Thus he was particularly diſtinguiſhed by the new Pope, and raiſed from an obſcure ſtation to one in which he could diſplay his talents to greater advantage. After the death of Leo, his firſt ſtep was to get another Pope elected without the conſent of the emperor, who was at that time engaged in a war with the Hungarians; though he afterwards conſulted him about the propriety of the choice. His next ſtep was to take advantage of the minority of Henry IV. to get a creature of his own elected, who paſſed the following remarkable decree, that for the future, the cardinals only ſhould elect the Pope, and that the election ſhould always be confirmed by the reſt of clergy and the people; "ſaving the honour, adds he, due to our dear ſon Henry, now king; and who, if it pleaſe God, ſhall be one day emperor, according to the right we have already conferred upon him." Immediately after this he entered into an alliance with the Norman princes, who held conſiderable dominions in Italy in fief from the emperor; and theſe, though they had formerly ſworn to hold theſe dominions from the Emperor, now ſwore in like manner to hold them from the Pope.

Thus the power of the German emperors was greatly diminiſhed; and of this Henry had ſoon reaſon to be convinced. In 1072 he was ſummoned by Alexander II. as an offender, on account of his looſe life. Henry ſubmitted, and was taken into favour after a ſevere reprimand. This, however, was nothing in compariſon of what he was condemned to ſuffer when Hildebrand himſelf was raiſed to the pontificate, under the title of Gregory VII. After various altercations the

emperor depoſed him; but ſuch ſeeds of rebellion had already been ſown among his ſubjects, that he could not now enforce his ſentence by the powerful argument of an army, as had been done by his predeceſſors. The Pope, perceiving his weakneſs, depoſed the emperor, and the event was, that Henry, who ſeems to have been naturally puſillanimous, and beſides, finding his cauſe given up by his own ſubjects, ſuddenly took the reſolution of croſſing the Alps, and making an unreſerved ſubmiſſion to the inſolent Pontiff. His penance on this occaſion was even worſe than that of Henry II. on account of the murder of Becket. On his arrival in Italy, the Pope was at Canoza on the Appennine mountains, a caſtle belonging to the ducheſs Matilda, who had very conſiderable territories. The emperor preſented himſelf before the gates of this palace as an humble penitent; and was admitted alone within the outer court. Here he was obliged to wait, clothed in ſackcloth, bareſooted and faſting, for three days in the month of January, before he was allowed to kiſs the feet of his Holineſs. At laſt he was permitted to throw himſelf at the Pontiff's feet, who condeſcended to grant him abſolution, after he had ſworn obedience to him in all things, and promiſed to ſubmit to a ſolemn deciſion of his cauſe to be given at Augſburg.

The triumph of Gregory ſeemed now to be complete; and he boaſted in ſome of his letters, that it was his duty to pull down the pride of kings. Here, however, he ſoon found himſelf miſtaken. The extreme inſolence with which he had behaved gave offence to all the princes of Italy. Henry, though abandoned by his German ſubjects, found a ſtrong party in Italy; and while the Pope endeavoured to ſet up a new Emperor in Germany, Henry endeavoured to ſet up a new Pope in Italy. But it did not accord with the intereſt of Gregory to puſh this matter to extremity, and he therefore declared, that though he had ſet up Rodolphus duke of Suabia, he would ſtill give the imperial crown to that competitor who ſhould approve himſelf moſt worthy of it, by making the greateſt conceſſions to the Holy See. This intimation had no effect upon Henry; who had felt too much of Gregory's haughtineſs and ſeverity to truſt any thing to his generoſity, and therefore prepared to aſſert his right by force of arms. Gregory, exaſperated by this obſtinacy, proceeded to execute the whole of his vengeance againſt the unfortunate emperor. He not only excommunicated him, and finally gave away his empire to Rodolphus, but deprived him of ſtrength in combat, and condemned him never to be victorious, concluding his anathema with theſe words. "Make all men ſenſible, that as you can bind or looſe every thing in heaven, you can alſo, upon earth take from, or give to every one according to his deſerts, empires, kingdoms, principalities;—let the kings and the princes of the age then inſtantly feel your power, that they may not dare to deſpiſe the orders of your church; let your juſtice be ſo ſpeedily executed upon Henry, that no body may doubt but he falls by your means, and not by chance."

But however Gregory might plume himſelf on the favour of heaven in this enterpriſe, the event certainly turned out very diſagreeable, not only to the emperor he had ſet up, but alſo to himſelf. Henry, having convoked a council of biſhops, formally depoſed the Pope, and elected another, under the title of Clement III.; whom he promiſed to put in poſſeſſion of Rome, though for the preſent obliged to oppoſe Rodolphus. The latter had aſſembled a conſiderable army, with which he met

Henry near Marpurg. A bloody engagement enſued, in which victory ſeemed to incline to Rodolphus, when his hand was cut off by the celebrated Godfrey of Bouillon, afterwards ſo remarkable for the conqueſt of Jeruſalem. Finding death approach, Rodolphus then ordered the hand which had been diſmembered to be brought him; and on ſeeing it "Behold, ſaid he, the hand with which I took the oath of allegiance to Henry; and which oath, at the inſtigation of Rome, I have violated, in perfidiouſly aſpiring at an honour that was not my due."

After the death of Rodolphus, Henry next ſet about accompliſhing his promiſe to Clement, and placing him on the papal throne. But this was a taſk of no little difficulty. The gates of Rome were ſhut againſt him, and a formal ſiege was to be entered upon; nor was it leſs than two years before the city could be reduced. At laſt it was taken by aſſault, and was with difficulty ſaved from pillage. Gregory himſelf, however, took refuge in the caſtle of St. Angelo, whence he was ſoon after releaſed in the emperor's abſence, by Robert Guiſcard, but died in no long time at Salerno, admiring with his laſt breath, the *uprightneſs* of his own conduct. "I have loved juſtice, ſays he, and hated iniquity; therefore I die in exile."

By this victory over Gregory, Henry did not enjoy all the quiet he expected. Succeeding Popes trod in the ſame ſteps; and he had almoſt the ſame courſe to run over again with Paſcal, the ſucceſſor of Gregory, that he had with that pontiff himſelf. In this he was much more unſucceſful; for Paſcal having inſtigated his ſon to take up arms againſt his father, the old emperor was treacherouſly ſeized and confined. He afterwards made his eſcape, and endeavoured to engage all the princes of Europe in his cauſe, but in vain; ſo that he was never reſtored to his former dignity. His ſon Henry IV. found himſelf in the ſame predicament that his father had been; the great diſpute was about the right of the emperor to inveſt and conſecrate biſhops and other eccleſiaſtics, a right which the Popes would never allow, nor the emperors part with. At preſent the emperor reſolved to go to Rome in perſon, purpoſely to ſettle the diſpute, but, that his arguments might have the greater weight, he thought proper to march at the head of 80,000 men. The diſpute was then ſettled preciſely in the manner which might have been expected. A battle was fought within the walls of the city, in which the Romans were defeated, with ſuch ſlaughter on both ſides, that the river Tiber was dyed with blood. Paſcal was taken priſoner, and ſolemnly renounced his right of inveſtiture; but no ſooner was the emperor gone, than the former broke his oath, and excommunicated him. A new war enſued about the dominions of the counteſs or ducheſs Matilda above mentioned. She poſſeſſed in her own right, great part of Tuſcany, Mantua, Parma, Reggio, Placentia, Ferrara, Modena, Verona; almoſt the whole of what is now called the Patrimony of St. Peter, from Viterbo to Orrieto; together with part of Umbria, Spoleto, and the Marche of Ancona. This lady had ſuch an antipathy againſt the Germans, that ſhe could not bear the thoughts of her dominions falling into their hands after her death, for which reaſon ſhe bequeathed them to the Pope. Henry inſiſted that ſhe had no title to do ſo; that her eſtates depended immediately on the empire, and conſequently that he himſelf was the neareſt heir.

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To this purpoſe he ſent ambaſſadors to Paſcal; but the pontiff would not even allow them a hearing; though, on the emperor's approach he found himſelf obliged to take refuge in the dominions of the Norman princes. Soon after the emperor's arrival in Rome, the Pope died, and a new one was elected without the conſent of the emperor, by the name of Gelaſius II. But this pontiff was inſtantly depoſed by Henry, who ſet up another, under the title of Gregory VIII. A third Pope was ſet up, by the cardinals and clergy of Rome, ſtiled Calixtus II.; and by him the Emperor and his Pope were excommunicated. A quarrel enſued, in which the emperor would propably have been attended with his uſual ſucceſs, had not the ſtates of the empire, wearied out with ſuch endleſs contention, inſiſted that an end ſhould be put to it. Henry conſented to their requeſt; and a diet being aſſembled at Wartzburg, it was decreed that an embaſſy ſhould be immediately ſent to the Pope, deſiring him to convoke a general council at Rome for the determination of all diſputes; which being done, the affair of the inveſtitures was at length ſettled in the following manner, viz. That the emperor ſhould leave the chapters and communities at liberty to fill up their own vacancies, without beſtowing inveſtitures with the croſs and ring; that he ſhould reſtore all that he had unjuſtly taken from the church; that all elections ſhould be made in a canonical manner, in preſence of the emperor and commiſſaries; the diſputes to be referred to the emperor, aſſiſted by the metropolitan and his ſuffragans; and that the perſon elected ſhould receive from the emperor the inveſtiture of the fiefs and ſecular rights, not with the croſs, but with the ſceptre, and ſhould pay allegiance for theſe only.

From this time the power of the emperors in Italy began to decline; and though it was revived by Frederic Barbaroſſa, and ſome of his immediate ſucceſſors, yet, about the year 1250, the affairs both of Germany and Italy fell into ſuch confuſion, that they could never afterwards be retrieved. The clergy took arms againſt the laity; the weak were oppreſſed by the ſtrong; and all laws, divine and human, diſregarded. A kind of interregnum took place from this time to the year 1273, when Rodolph, count of Hapſburg, was unanimouſly choſen to the imperial throne; but, during this long interregnum, Denmark, Holland, and Hungary had entirely freed themſelves from the homage they had been accuſtomed to pay to the emperors; and, much about the ſame time, ſeveral German cities erected a municipal form of government, which ſtill continues; Lubec, Cologn, Dantzic, and Brunſwic, united for their mutual defence in the Hanſeatic League, of which we have already ſpoken in the introduction. Italy likewiſe aſſumed a new face. The Florentines, Piſans, Genoeſe, Luccans, &c. ſet up for themſelves, and could not be reduced; ſo that the power of the emperors ſeemed in a manner to be annihilated. Henry VII. attempted to reſtore it in the beginning of the 14th century; but though he ſucceeded in his enterprize, it coſt him ſo dear, that no permanent government could be eſtabliſhed; and only a ſmall part of that extenſive country now owns ſubjection to his Imperial Majeſty.

In the year 1440 the Imperial dignity devolved upon the Houſe of Auſtria; and Frederic III. was the firſt emperor of that line. His ſucceſſor Maximilian annexed to his empire the 17 provinces of the Netherlands, by marriage with the heireſs of Charles duke of Burgundy. His grandſon Charles V. was elected emperor in the year 1519;

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and under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards; the reformation took place, and the foundation of violent wars and perſecutions were laid on that account. Almoſt continual wars alſo took place betwixt that monarch and Francis I. Charles was at firſt very ſucceſsful, but in the end met with ſo many diſappointments, that he reſigned his crown. His brother Ferdinand had the addreſs to get his ſon declared king of the Romans in his lifetime; and by his laſt will ordered that if either his own male iſſue, or that of his brother ſhould fail, the eſtates of Auſtria ſhould revert to his ſecond daughter Anne wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her iſſue. The reigns of Maximilian II. Rodolph, and Matthias were diſturbed by wars with the Turks, Hungarians, and Bohemians. The contentions betwixt the Lutherans and Calviniſts alſo ran ſo high, that the empire was threatened with a civil war on their account. Matthias attempted to deſtroy both parties, which gave riſe to the Evangelic League for the ſupport of the Proteſtant religion, in oppoſition to the Catholic League for the ſupport of Popery. Ferdinand II. who ſucceeded Matthias in 1618, proved a no leſs violent enemy to the Proteſtants than his predeceſſor; ſo that the reformed religion ſeemed in great danger of being exterminated on the continent. The Bohemians ſought protection from Frederic, elector Palatine, on whom they conferred their crown; but he was entirely defeated, and driven out of his dominions; and though the Proteſtants continued the war with great obſtinacy, the advantages of generalſhip were ſo great on the ſide of the Catholics, that it is probable they would ultimately have failed, had it not been for the timely interference of Guſtavus Adolphus of Sweden. After his death the cauſe was nobly ſupported by the able generals he left behind him, as the duke of Saxe-weimar, Torſtenſon, Banier, and others, under whom the Auſtrian power was ſo much ſhaken, that they were at laſt glad to conclude a peace in 1648; and on the treaty concluded at that time, the preſent political ſyſtem of Europe was founded.

Under the reign of Leopold, who ſucceeded to the throne in 1657, the empire was greatly haraſſed, by the Turks on the one hand, and the French on the other. During theſe wars the province of Alſace was ſubdued by the French, and on the other hand, the Turks made ſuch progreſs, that they would have taken Vienna, had it not been relieved by John Soboieſki king of Poland. In 1697, however, prince Eugene, at that time a young military adventurer, began to check, in an effectual manner, the power of the Turks and French. The latter indeed made ſuch amazing progreſs, as juſtly alarmed all Europe; however, by the atchievements of the prince juſt mentioned and the duke of Marlborough, they were reduced to ſuch a low ebb, that nothing further could be feared from them. After the concluſion of the peace at Utrecht, the Turks received two great defeats from prince Eugene, by which they were alſo humbled to ſuch a degree, that they were glad to conclude a peace upon terms very advantageous to the empire. After the death of prince Eugene they recovered their ſpirits, and engaged in a new war, in which the emperor was no longer attended with his uſual ſucceſs; ſo that he was obliged to accept of the mediation of France, by which he obtained a better peace than could have otherwiſe been expected.

The great point which this emperor, Charles VI. had in view throughout his whole lifetime, was the eſtabliſhment of the *Pragmatic ſanction*,

ſanction, of which we have already given an account. This he at laſt accompliſhed; but immediatley after his death in 1740, the late king of Pruſſia ſeized on the duchy of Sileſia, of which he ſaid his anceſtors had been unjuſtly deprived. At the ſame time the French invaded the Auſtrian dominions in another quarter, took the city of Prague, and reduced the daughter of Charles VI. (the late empreſs-queen) to the greateſt diſtreſs. The king of Britain, however, ſtood her friend, and the French were driven out of Bohemia. The emperor, Charles VII. was reduced in the mean time to the moſt miſerable ſituation, and would have gladly come to any terms with the queen of Hungary; but ſhe obſtinately refuſed all accommodation, until ſhe thought that by doing ſo ſhe might recover Sileſia. The death of Charles, in 1745, put an end to all trouble on his account; and in a ſhort time the duke of Lorrain, huſband to the empreſs, then grand duke of Tuſcany, was advanced to the imperial throne.

By a treaty concluded with the king of Pruſſia, the province of Sileſia was given up to him, but with ſuch reluctance on the part of the queen of Hungary, that ſhe almoſt inſtantly entered into a combination with the court of Peterſburgh, by ſome ſecret articles of which it was agreed, that in caſe the empreſs-queen, or the empreſs of Ruſſia ſhould be attacked by the king of Pruſſia, or even the republic of Poland, it ſhould be conſidered as a breach of the late treaty which indeed had been dictated by the king of Pruſſia himſelf. Notwithſtanding this treaty, it was likewiſe ſtipulated, that the right of the empreſs-queen to Sileſia ſtill continued; and that an army of 60,000 men ſhould be mutually furniſhed by the contracting powers for the recovery of that province. The king of Poland was invited to accede to this treaty; and, though he was too much in the power of the king of Pruſſia to venture to ſign it, he verbally acquieſced in ſuch a manner as to be accounted one of the allies; and, as a reward for his good intentions, he was to have a ſhare of the Pruſſian monarch's dominions, in caſe of a ſucceſsful event of the enterpriſe.

In conſequence of theſe machinations, vaſt preparations were made by all parties; and, in the year 1756. the queen of Hungary concluded a treaty with France. All this was done, as the parties imagined, without the knowledge of the king of Pruſſia; but he had in truth been informed of the whole proceedings by ſome of his emiſſaries, and therefore determined to be beforehand with them. With this view he invaded Saxony, where the king of Poland had collected 16,000 men, whom he kept in a ſtrong camp at Pirna, while M. Brown, and count Picolomini had each of them a Saxon army in Bohemia. To oppoſe theſe marſhal Keith was ſent into Bohemia on the ſide of Miſnia; but the king, fearing ſome diſaſter from ſo many enemies in the field, in a ſhort time joined his forces to thoſe of marſhal Keith, and defeated the Auſtrian general; ſo that no relief could be given to the Saxon troops commanded by the king of Poland; by which this whole army were at laſt obliged to ſurrender themſelves priſoners of war. On this occaſion his Pruſſian Majeſty made himſelf maſter of the archives of Dreſden; by which means the originals of the treaties juſt mentioned fell into his hands. He took up his winter quarters in the electorate, and not only levied heavy contributions, but obliged the country to ſupply him with recruits. This behaviour brought upon him a proceſs before the Aulic Council and the Imperial Diet, where he was very ſoon

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put to the bar of the empire for contumacy; the different circles were ordered to furniſh their quotas of men and money to be employed againſt him; but this was done ſo ſlowly, and with ſuch apparent reluctance, that, had it not been for the aſſiſtance of the French, it is probable the army of the empire would never have been in any condition to act.

The allied powers now prepared to call forth the utmoſt of their vengeance againſt the devoted monarch, and ſuch preparations were made for his deſtruction as ſeemed altogether impoſſible to be reſiſted. The Auſtrians raiſed an army of 100,000 men in Bohemia, whom they committed to the care of Prince Charles of Lorrain and M. Brown; the Czarina ſent a body of 60,000 to invade Ducal Pruſſia under M. Apraxin; while a ſtrong fleet was equipped on the Baltic, in order to co operate with that party. Even the king of Sweden joined the confederacy, in hopes of recovering his ancient poſſeſſions in Pomerania; and the duke of Mecklenburg engaged to aſſiſt his Swediſh Majeſty with 6000 men; while on the ſide of Pruſſia no ally appeared, except an army of between 30 and 40 thouſand Hanoverians, already outnumbered and vanquiſhed by the French.

In this extremity the king of Pruſſia determined to ſupply every defect by his own courage and activity. In the Spring of 1757, two of his generals entered Bohemia with their armies, while he himſelf entered the ſame country on another ſide. The prince of Bevern defeated an army of 28,000 Auſtrians who oppoſed his paſſage; on which M. Brown, who commanded the main army, detached 20,000 men to watch the king of Pruſſia's motions; and this was no ſooner done, than his Majeſty attacked and entirely defeated the remainder near Prague, making himſelf maſter of their camp military cheſt, and cannon. Forty thouſand of the fugitives took refuge in the city; and though the great number of men it now contained ſeemed to defy all the force of an attack, the reduction of it by famine ſeemed for the ſame reaſon to be in a manner inevitable; and therefore it was inſtantly inveſted.

To render the reduction of this city more certain and expeditious, the king determined to employ the utmoſt efforts of bombardment as well as blockade. A dreadful ſcene now enſued; 288 bombs were thrown in every 24 hours; by which, and an immenſe quantity of red hot balls, which accompanied the bombs, the houſes were reduced to an heap of rubbiſh. The garriſon made a vigorous and well conducted ſally; but were repulſed with great loſs. The principal inhabitants, terrified at the dreadful ſpectacle, ſolicited, in the moſt earneſt manner, the Auſtrian general to ſurrender the place; but, inſtead of liſtening to their entreaties, he drove 12,000 of thoſe whom he accounted the moſt uſeleſs out of the town, who were as quickly driven into it by the king of Pruſſia. But while matters were going on thus ſucceſsfully in appearance for his Pruſſian Majeſty, the command of the Auſtrian army was given to Leopold count Daun, an able and experienced general, by whom the face of affairs was quickly changed. Having collected the ſcattered fugitives with the utmoſt diligence, he occupied a ſtrong camp with them in the neighbourhood; from whence the king ought either to have diſlodged him at once; abandoned the ſiege of the place, or made a deſperate effort to have become maſter of it; but inſtead of this he ſent a body of only 32,000 men to diſlodge count Daun, who had an army of not fewer than 60,000 along with him. The conſequence of this was, that the Pruſſians were defeated, and the ſiege of Prague raiſed; the

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king was obliged to quit Bohemia and take refuge in Saxony; but notwithſtanding this diſaſter, the Auſtrians were in no condition to hurt him, on account of the diſtreſſed ſituation of their armies. The Ruſſians, however, endeavoured to ſupply this defect, by entering Ducal Pruſſia, under generals Apraxin and Fermor, where they committed the greateſt cruelties. The Swedes, Auſtrians, and French, advanced on all ſides; and the army of the empire, after many delays, at laſt prepared to enter Saxony. To fill up the meaſure of this diſtreſs, general Haddick, having penetrated through Luſatia, ſuddenly appeared before Berlin, and laid the city under contribution; the Pruſſian general, Lehwald, who, with an army of 30,000, had attacked double the number of Ruſſians, was defeated; and, in ſhort, every thing ſeemed to conſpire towaads the ruin of the oppreſſed and forlorn monarch.

All theſe difficulties ſerved only to make the conduct of the king of Pruſſia appear the more glorious. Wherever he turned his enemies were obliged to fly before him; though, while he purſued them on one ſide, they gained upon him ſo faſt in another, that all his efforts ſeemed to avail him nothing. At laſt, by the victory of Roſbach, in which, with an army of 25,000 men, he defeated 50,000 French and Imperialiſts, he ſet himſelf at liberty on one ſide; but this was in ſome degree compenſated by the loſs of Schweidnitz and Breſlau, which were ſoon after taken by the Auſtrians. The garriſon of Schweidnitz, however, found means to recover their liberty, and unexpectedly joined the king's army; ſoon after which, with only 36,000 men, he gave battle to count Daun, who commanded no fewer than 70,000. The two armies met near the village of Leuthen, but notwithſtanding the great ſuperiority of the Auſtrians, and the admirable diſpoſitions made by their general, they were at laſt entirely defeated, with the loſs of 6000 killed, 15,000 taken priſoners, and 200 pieces of cannon. The conſequences of this ſignal victory were the retaking of Breſlau, and the reduction of all the places of ſmaller importance in Sileſia; while the Ruſſians, who had deſtroyed and laid waſte the country in ſuch a manner that they could no longer ſubſiſt, found themſelves obliged to retire by reaſon of their own devaſtations. Thus general Lehwald was left at liberty to act againſt the Swedes, whom he very ſoon drove out of Pomerania; and by this means the duchy of Mecklenburg was left expoſed to the vengeance of the king of Pruſſia, who did not fail, by levying heavy contributions, to take ample ſatisfaction for the injuries done by the acceſſion of the duke to the general confederacy. To complete the good fortune of the Pruſſian monarch alſo, the French, who had made ſuch formidable advances, were effectually kept at bay by prince Ferdinand, ſo that they could attempt nothing of conſequence againſt him.

In the year 1758 the ſame good fortune ſeemed at firſt to attend the arms of his Pruſſian Majeſty. He recovered the town of Schweidnitz after a ſiege of 13 days, and poſted his troops in ſuch a manner as ſeemed beſt calculated to defend him againſt the attacks of his numerous enemies. By a ſudden irruption into Moravia, he made himſelf at once maſter of all the important places in it, except Olmutz the capital; but count Daun having come unexpectedly, entered that country, and poſted himſelf ſo ſtrongly, that the Pruſſian monarch found himſelf obliged to abandon the enterpriſe. The ſiege, however, was raiſed with ſuch ſecrecy and diſpatch, that his enemies could give him very little moleſtation. On his march he ſeized a large Auſtrian magazine, defeated

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ſome bodies of their troops who attempted to oppoſe his paſſage, and took poſſeſſion of Konigſgratz, after driving out 7000 Auſtrians who were entrenched there. But, while he was thus ſignalizing himſelf in that quarter, the Ruſſians had entered the new marche of Brandenburg, and laid ſiege to Cuſtrin. Though little acquainted with this kind of operation, they had thrown in at random ſuch an immenſe number of bombs and red hot balls, that vaſt numbers of the inhabitants were killed; the greater part of the remainder fled out of the town, and the houſes were burnt or reduced to rubbiſh. The governor did every thing in his power for the defence of the place; but it is improbable that it could have held out for any length of time, had it not been relieved by the king of Pruſſia. That active and enterpriſing monarch having marched with incredible expedition for 56 days, through a country deſolated with fire and ſword, unexpectedly made his appearance before Cuſtrin on the 25th of Auguſt. On his approach the Ruſſians inſtantly abandoned their enterpriſe, and retired to a village called *Zorndorff*. Here they were attacked by the Pruſſians, and ſlaughtered rather than defeated. Their loſs amounted to upwards of 21,000 men; among whom were many officers of high rank, beſides a vaſt train of artillery, and the military cheſt; while the Pruſſians in all did not loſe above 2000. After his victory the king haſtened with his army into Saxony, where prince Henry was ſorely haraſſed by count Daun. A plan had been laid of attacking the prince at once by the armies of the Imperialiſts and Auſtrians; but this was rendered abortive by the king of Pruſſia, whoſe ſudden appearance obliged the Auſtrians to retire, while the army of the empire entrenched themſelves ſtrongly at Pirna, the poſt which had been formerly occupied by the king of Poland and his Saxons; and the Swedes, on hearing of the battle at Zorndorff, made the beſt of their way out of the reach of the victorious monarch.

Thus the affairs of the king ſeemed once more to wear a favourable aſpect; but while apparently in this proſperous condition, he was ſurpriſed in his camp at Hoch-kirchen, and defeated by count Daun, with the loſs of 7000 men, and a great number of cannon. The loſs of this battle proved very detrimental to his affairs, as it obliged him to make large draughts from the army of prince Henry to reinforce his own. Haſtening into Saxony, however, the mere terror of his name induced the Auſtrians to raiſe the ſieges of Nieſs and Coſel; on which he returned by the way he came, to the relief of Dreſden, the capital of that electorate, which was now in great danger from the Auſtrians. The place was garriſoned by 12,000 men, but indifferently fortified; ſo that there ſeemed no likelihood of its being able to hold out for any length of time; for which reaſon M. Schmettau, the Pruſſian governor, ſet the ſuburbs on fire, to render it leſs acceſſible. This occaſioned an incredible loſs to the inhabitants; the fine manufactures of porcelain and other kinds of earthen ware being deſtroyed; and it was grievouſly complained of by the Auſtrians as a piece of the moſt wanton and unprovoked cruelty mentioned in hiſtory. After this the Auſtrian armies took up their winter quarters in Bohemia, as the king of Pruſſia did in Saxony, which he ſaid he would now conſider as his own by right of conqueſt. Inſtead of treating the inhabitants as ſubjects, however, he oppreſſed them by all poſſible means; levying the moſt ſevere and intolerable contributions, ſurrounding the exchange with ſoldiers, and confining the merchants in narrow lodgings upon beds of ſtraw, till he

compelled them to draw upon their correſpondents for ſuch ſums as he wanted.

The campaign of 1759 commenced with ſome exploits of the Pruſſian generals, prince Henry and general Hulſen; the latter of whom defeated a ſtrong body of Auſtrians with very little loſs to himſelf. But theſe, and other trifling ſucceſſes, were far overbalanced by the defeat of general Wedel at Zullichau by the Ruſſians; of whom, by the king's order, he had attacked 70,000, with ſcarce 30,000 on his own ſide. Even this was a mere trifle to what followed. The king himſelf, with an army of 50,000, attacked, a ſhort time after, the ſame army, ſtrongly intrenched, and defended by a vaſt number of cannon. At firſt he was very ſucceſsful, and drove the enemy from moſt of their entrenchments; but his exceſſive rage for conqueſt prompting him to urge on his wearied troops again and again, in order to make a full end of his enemies, he was at laſt utterly defeated by them, with the loſs of no fewer than 20,000 men killed and wounded. This defeat ſeemed to be almoſt deciſive of his affairs; for, though he applied himſelf with the utmoſt diligence to repair the loſs he had ſuſtained, it was never in his power to make ſuch exertions as he had done formerly. Even this dreadful overthrow was not the termination of his misfortunes. General Finck, having been ſent out to ſeize ſome paſſes, with a body of 12,000 men, was taken priſoner with all the troops he commanded; and another general, Durceke, who had under him a conſiderable body of troops, was attacked and defeated by the Auſtrians with the loſs of 3000 men. A third commander, named Fouquet, was defeated by the Auſtrian general Laudohn, and all his men, to the number of 11,000, killed or taken priſoners; only about 300 having the good luck to make their eſcape.

Theſe diſaſters were followed by the reduction of the city of Glatz in Bohemia, and the approach of three Auſtrian armies to that of the king, in ſuch a manner as made his ruin apparently inevitable; and his extricating himſelf from this danger may be juſtly accounted the moſt ſurpriſing action of his life. Marſhal Daun, who was at this time one of his opponents, remembering the advantage he had gained at Hochkirchen by a nocturnal attack, reſolved to attempt the ſame thing at this time; and therefore laid his plan in the following manner. The whole army were to march as ſoon as dark, from ſeveral poſts, to ſuch ſituations as were marked out for each corps. They were to decamp with all imaginable ſecrecy, and by keeping up fires lighted, and beating the drum as uſual, they hoped to ſurpriſe the enemy, or at any rate to render it impoſſible for him to eſcape them. The king, however, having by ſome means or other got intelligence of their deſign, reſolved to intercept one of the parties as it marched to attack him. On the evening deſigned for this attempt, therefore, he quitted his camp with the utmoſt privacy, and took an advantageous poſt on the road through which he knew Laudohn muſt paſs; the nature of which was ſuch, that at the time it ſtopped his progreſs in front, Daun would be greatly embaraſſed if he ſhould attempt his rear; but for fear of any accident, he ſtrengthened himſelf on that quarter with ſeveral batteries of cannon. As ſoon as his army was drawn up he divided it; leaving his right on the ground where it had been formed, to obſerve marſhal Daun, and to maintain that poſt; while with his left he turned in order to fall on the corps under general Laudohn. In the mean time, that commander,

ignorant of the fate that awaited him, advanced with the utmoſt expedition towards the place which had been aſſigned him, in order to ſhare the glory of deſtroying the Pruſſian monarch; when, at three in the morning, a thick fog which covered the ground, ſuddenly clearing up, diſcovered, like the opening of a great ſcene, the dreadful front of the Pruſſian army, regularly embattled, and advantageouſly poſted. Laudohn, though ſurpriſed, made the beſt diſpoſitions that circumſtances would admit of, and an obſtinate engagement enſued; in which, however, he was at laſt obliged to yield to the ſuperior ſkill of his adverſary, with the loſs of 10,000 killed, wounded, and priſoners, 82 pieces of cannon, and 25 pair of colours.

This great victory, however, did not give great relief to his Pruſſian Majeſty; the moſt eſſential conſequence being that it prevented the Ruſſians from joining the other enemies he had. Count Czernichew had been advancing with 24,000 men, and had even paſſed the Oder; but was ſo intimidated by the news of the victory at Lignitz, that he inſtantly repaſſed that river on the ſame bridges which he had lately built, even though M. Daun ſent him a ſtrong body of troops in order to encourage him to advance.

By this, and ſome other ſucceſſes, the affairs of his Pruſſian Majeſty ſeemed to revive; but his enemies were ſo numerous, that any victory whatever over one of them ſignified very little on the whole. The city of Berlin was ſoon inveſted by the Ruſſians, and as the force with which it was defended could by no means cope with the army which inveſted it, there was no reſource but in ſubmiſſion. The fate of the city, indeed, conſidering the barbarity of the aſſailants, was juſtly dreaded; but by the powerful mediation of ſeveral foreign miniſters, ſome tolerable terms were obtained. This, however, could not prevent the deſtruction of the magazines, arſenals, and founderies, and the ſeizure of an immenſe quantity of cannon and other arms. The city was at firſt obliged to pay 800,000 guilders, after which, a contribution of 1,900,000 crowns was laid on; and even after all the king's palace was plundered, and the furniture abuſed in a ſhameful manner. The king of Pruſſia, dreading the fate of his capital, advanced with prodigious expedition to its relief. The combined armies of Auſtrians and Ruſſians did not chuſe to wait his approach; but the embaraſſments of the Pruſſian monarch were ſo great, that his affairs ſeemed to be abſolutely beyond the power of man to retrieve. The Imperialiſts made themſelves maſters of Leipſic, Torgau, Meiſſen, and Wittemberg, in which laſt place they found the grand magazine of the Pruſſians, immenſely ſtored with proviſions and ammunition. The city and duchy of Halberſtadt alſo was laid under contribution by M. Stainville with a detachment of the French army. Colberg, in Eaſtern Pomerania, was beſieged by the Ruſſians by ſea and land; while, in Weſtern Pomerania, the Swedes advanced with great expedition, in hopes of ſharing the plunder of Berlin. In Sileſia, the king no ſooner began his march to the northward, than Laudohn advanced, and laid ſiege to the fortreſs of Coſel; and, to complete his misfortunes, the king himſelf was attended at every ſtep by count Daun with a ſuperior army, well prepared to take every advantage. In this deſperate ſituation, the king, joined by his generals Hulſen and prince Eugene of Wittemberg, with the corps under their command, advanced up the Elbe, while M. Daun fell back, to cover Leipſic and Torgau. The Pruſſian army did not exceed 50,000 men, yet ſuch were the unfortunate

circumſtances

circumſtances of the monarch, that with theſe he was obliged to fight an army of 86,000. An attempt ſo plainly deſperate, required an uncommon animation on the part of his ſoldiers, ſo that the king told them, he was now obliged to inform them that he was to enter upon a moſt arduous enterpriſe, and he determined to conquer or die. His ſoldiers unanimouſly declared that they would die with him, and every precaution that could be thought of was taken to enſure ſucceſs. M. Daun, perceiving that the king was determined to fight at all events, ſent all his baggage over the Elbe, throwing over it at the ſame time three bridges, in caſe a retreat ſhould be neceſſary. The king began his attack about two in the afternoon, and the engagement continued till late at night, when the Auſtrians, notwithſtanding their ſuperiority in numbers, were totally defeated. The loſs in killed and wounded was not known, but 8000 were taken priſoners, among whom were four generals, and 212 officers of inferior rank.

This victory was attended with many beneficial conſequences, notwithſtanding which, in the year 1761, the ſtrength of the Pruſſian monarch ſeemed to be ſo totally exhauſted, that he could no longer make the vigorous efforts to which he had been ſo long accuſtomed. He was, beſides, ſo cloſely watched by the generals Daun and Laudohn, that he could attempt nothing, even if his ſituation otherwiſe would have admitted of it. He deſtroyed the magazines of the Ruſſians indeed, and cut off a body of 4000 of their troops; but this only brought the more certain deſtruction upon Colberg, to which place the Ruſſians immediately marched, cruelly waſting the country as they went along. The king could do nothing but ſend detachments of ſmall parties, which, though they could not oppoſe their enemies in the field, yet, he hoped, by cutting off their convoys, to diſtreſs them to ſuch a degree as to oblige them to abandon the ſiege, or at leaſt to protract it till the ſeverity of the winter ſhould render it impoſſible for them to carry on their operations. By this means his army was weakened to ſuch a degree, that he found it neceſſary to draw 4000 men out of the garriſon at Schweidnitz in order to reinforce it; and, no ſooner was this done, than general Laudohn ſuddenly attacked and took it by a *coup de main*. Colberg made a brave defence; but, as it was inveſted by an army of 50,000 men, all the troops which the king could poſſibly ſpare to its relief, were inſufficient for the purpoſe, and it was obliged to ſurrender on the 3d of December 1761.

Thus the fate of the Pruſſian monarch ſeemed to be decided, and indeed, in all probability, it would have been entirely out of his power to have retrieved his affairs, had not the death of the empreſs of Ruſſia taken off the moſt formidable enemy he had. Her ſucceſſor Peter III. inſtead of being the king's enemy, was his moſt ſanguine friend; and not only a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities, but a treaty of alliance was quickly concluded. Sweden followed the example of Ruſſia, and a peace was concluded betwixt that power and his Pruſſian Majeſty on the 22d of May 1762. Thus the fortune of war once more became favourable to the king of Pruſſia. His arms were attended with ſucceſs in every quarter. Prince Henry drove the Imperialiſts from ſome poſts of importance in Saxony; and, though the Auſtrians frequently attempted to recover them, their endeavours conſtantly proved abortive. Marſhal Daun was driven out of Sileſia, general Laudohn entirely defeated, and the allies of the queen of Hungary, becoming at laſt weary

of the war, entirely deſerted her. Thus ſhe was obliged to accept of reaſonable terms of peace, which was concluded at Hubertſburg, on the condition that both parties ſhould ſit down contented with their loſſes, and let their dominions remain in the ſame ſituation they were at the beginning of the war.

From the date of this treaty (October 29. 1762) till the year 1778, the empire remained in a ſtate of tranquillity; but, at that time, a new difference took place between the houſe of Auſtria and king of Pruſſia. The greateſt preparations were made on both ſides, and vaſt armies brought into the field, without effecting any thing of conſequence. If any advantage was gained, it ſeems to have been by the Pruſſians, as they made themſelves maſters of ſeveral towns, and kept the war in the enemy's country. The late emperor, Joſeph II. acted with ſo much caution, and ſhewed ſuch ſkill in defending himſelf, that the impetuoſity of the Pruſſian monarch could avail him nothing; and a peace was ſoon concluded. From that time to the preſent, Germany has been undiſturbed by any internal commotions. The tranſactions of the late emperor with regard to Holland have been already related; and here we may obſerve, that though, according to the conſtitution of the empire, the emperor ought neither to make peace or war without conſulting the diet, he did not attend to this either in the affair of Holland, or of his war with the Turks. In many reſpects this prince endeavoured to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects. In religious matters he granted a moſt liberal toleration, and by ſuppreſſing the uſeleſs religious houſes, certainly did a very conſiderable ſervice to the country. By an edict in 178- he alſo aboliſhed what remained of ſervitude and villenage in his dominions; and he likewiſe fixed the fees of lawyers at a moderate rate, granting them a penſion in lieu of what he had abſtracted otherwiſe. In his war with the Turks he was attended with conſiderable ſucceſs, though his death, which happened on 20th February 1790, will probably put an end to that enterpriſe. He was ſucceeded by his brother, the grand duke of Tuſcany.

PRUSSIA.

Boundaries and Extent. THIS country, formerly a duchy, but within this century erected into a kingdom, is bounded on the north by Samogitia; on the eaſt by Lithuania; on the weſt by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic: and on the ſouth by Poland Proper and Maſſovia; its greateſt length being about 160 miles, and the breadth 120. The following table ſhews the whole of his Pruſſian Majeſty's dominions, which lie ſcattered in different countries.

Grand

Grand Divisions.		Square Miles	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Poland	Ducal Pruſſia	9,960	160	113	KONINGSBERG	54-44 N. lat.
	Royal Pruſſia	6,40	118	105	Elbing	21-35 E. lon.
Up. Saxony	Brandenburg	1 ,920	215	0	Berlin	
	Pomerania	4, 30	1 .0	64	Camin	
	Swe. Pomerania	, 0	90	48	Stetin	
Lo. Saxony	Magdeburg	1, 35	63	50	Magdeburg	
	Halberſtadt	450	42	17	Halberſtadt	
Bohemia	Glatz	56	38	44	Glatz	
	Silena	1 .000	96	93	Breſlaw	
Weſtphalia	Minden	600	42	2	Minden	
	Ravenſberg	53	38	34	Ravenſburg	
	Lingen	12	10	12	Lingen	
	Cleves	640	43	21	Cleves	
	Meurs	45	1	6	Meurs	
	Mark	98	53	43	Ham	
	Eaſt Frieſland	700	46	32	Embden	
	Lippe	25	9	4	Lipſtadt	
	Gulich	528	44	24	Gulich	
	Tecklenburg	37	14	6	Tecklenburg	
Netherlands	Gelder	370	3	23	Gelders	
Switzerland	Neufchatel	330	33	20	Neufchatel	
	Total—	51,391				

Name. Some authors derive the name of this kingdom from the Boruſſi, a tribe of the ancient Sarmatians, who migrated from the foot of the Riphæan mountains, and ſettled here. According to others, the name is properly *Poruſſia; Po*, in the language of the natives, ſignifying *near;* ſo that the word *Poruſſia* implies *near Ruſſia;* and to this latter opinion the king himſelf aſſents in his *Memoirs of the Houſe of Brandenburg.*

Air, Soil, &c. The air of this country is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in grain, affording alſo plenty of pit coal, and fuel of other kinds. The rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſh; and amber is found on the coaſt towards the Baltic.

Rivers. The principal of theſe are the Viſtula, Pregel, Niemen, Warta, Goldan, and the Elbe, all of which frequently do damage by their inundations.

Population, Inhabitants, &c. Theſe were by Dr Buſching computed at 635,998 capable of bearing arms. A conſiderable number of people, not fewer, it is ſaid, than 54,000, from France, Germany, and Switzerland, ſettled chiefly in that part named Little Lithuania, where they built 400 villages, 11 towns, and founded 100 village-ſchools. The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from thoſe of the Germans.

Religion. The doctrines of Luther and Calvin are both eſtabliſhed in ſome places of this kingdom, though the former generally prevails; but an unlimited toleration was granted by the late king; which undoubtedly contributed very much to the welfare of the kingdom. There is an univerſity at Koningſberg, founded in the year 1544,

and

and a ſociety at Berlin have publiſhed ſome valuable tracts in their memoirs.

Principal Cities. The moſt noted place in Pruſſia, properly ſo called, is Koningſberg, ſeated on the river Pregel, over which there are ſeven bridges. It is a large and populous city, formerly one of the Hanſe towns, and is divided into three parts, called the *Old Town*, the *Kniephof*, and *Lobenic*. The Old Town has a fine caſtle, erected by the marquis George Frederic; and there is alſo an armoury, library, and cabinet of curioſities. The Kniephof ſtands on an iſland formed by the river, and is reckoned the handſomeſt diviſion of the whole. It has 18 churches, one for Papiſts, three for Calviniſts, and 14 for Lutherans. The trade of this city is very conſiderable, as, by means of the river, goods may be brought to the very doors of merchants houſes. Its commerce, however, was conſiderably diminiſhed by the bad policy of the court, who, in order to promote the ſale of the woollen manufactures of the country, prohibited the importation of all foreign goods of the kind. After this the Poles, Courlanders, and Livonians, finding they could not get a proper aſſortment of woollen goods in this place, quitted the Koningſberg market for Dantzic. The compaſs of the city, according to Dr Buſching, is ſeven miles, and the inhabitants are computed at 60,000.

Commerce and Manufactures. The augmentation of theſe was a favourite object with the late king, though his government was by no means proper for them. In ſeveral branches, however, the Pruſſians have made conſiderable progreſs. The articles fabricated by them are principally gun-powder, braſs and copper mills, paper, glaſs, and iron work. They alſo manufacture ſtockings, ſilk, linen, camblet, and woollen cloth. Great quantities of naval ſtores are likewiſe exported by the inhabitants, as well as lintſeed, hempſeed, oatmeal, mead, tallow, caviar, and amber. Konigſberg is ſuppoſed to ſend out 500 ſhips laden with theſe commodities annually.

Conſtitution and Government. His Pruſſian Majeſty is a very abſolute and deſpotic monarch; but the kingdom is governed by a regency of four chancellors of ſtate. Theſe are, the great maſter, the great burgrave, the great chancellor, and the great marſhal. The ſtates are compoſed of deputies from the nobility, commons, and counſellors of ſtate. There are 37 bailiwicks and ſome other councils, beſides thoſe already mentioned; and the late king created a board for commerce and navigation

Revenues. Theſe are greatly augmented by the wiſe regulations of the late king. Amber alone is ſaid to yield a very conſiderable ſum annually. The other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, cuſtoms, tolls, &c.; and the ſubſidies annually granted by the ſtates. The ſum is not preciſely known; though, from the vaſt charges which the king of Pruſſia has ſometimes been at, we may judge it to be very conſiderable; and the revenue muſt have been ſtill further augmented by the acquiſition of Poliſh Pruſſia. The poſſeſſion of this province renders the Pruſſian dominions more complete than before, and the troops may now march from Berlin to Konigſberg.

Military Strength. The troops of the king of Pruſſia are not only accounted the beſt in the world, but are extremely numerous, amounting, even in time of peace to 180,000; and, during the violent war, of which we have given an account in the hiſtory of Germany, they amounted

to

to full 300,000. The army conſiſts chiefly of regiments raiſed by the different provinces; the whole of his Pruſſian Majeſty's dominions being divided into cantons or circles. Each of theſe is aſſeſſed at a certain number of ſoldiers, according to its ſize and populouſneſs; and the recruits belonging to any particular body of men are always raiſed from the place whence they were originally taken. The ſons of the country people are all liable to be forced into the ſervice of the monarch, except one, who is left to manage the farm; the reſt are obliged to wear badges from their childhood, to ſhew that they are ready to enter upon the ſervice when occaſion requires. The maintenance of ſuch a large army, and ſuch an immenſe draught of uſeful hands from the country, is neceſſarily detrimental to agriculture, and of this the late king was ſenſible; ſo that he endeavoured as much as poſſible to ſave his people, by procuring recruits from other countries. Theſe foreigners are obliged to remain conſtantly with the army, but the natives are allowed to go home for ſome months in the year.

Arms. Theſe are Argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia. For Courland, azure, the Imperial ſceptre, or. For the marquiſate of Brandenburg, Argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemicircular wreaths. Beſides theſe, moſt of the provinces of the kingdom have arms peculiar to themſelves.

Orders of Knighthood. Theſe are, 1. The Order of Concord, inſtituted in 1660 by Chriſtian Erneſt, margrave of Brandenburg, on account of his having an active part in reſtoring peace to ſeveral European princes. 2. The Order of Generoſity was inſtituted in 1685 by Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Pruſſia. The knights wear a croſs of eight points enamelled blue, pendant to a blue ribbon, with this motto in the centre, *La Generoſité.* 3. The Order of the Black Eagle was inſtituted by the ſame prince in the year 1700, on the day of his coronation at Konigſberg. The number of knights is limited to 30, excluſive of the royal family. The ſovereign is always grand maſter, and all the members muſt have been admitted into the Order of Generoſity previous to their admiſſion into this, unleſs they be ſovereign princes. 4. The Order of Merit was inſtituted in the year 1740, by the late king, as a reward to perſons of diſtinguiſhed merit either in arms or the arts, and makes no diſtinction in birth, religion, or country. The number of members is unlimited, and the king himſelf is ſovereign.

Hiſtory. In the early ages Pruſſia was inhabited by a race of the greateſt barbarians imaginable; feeding upon raw fleſh, and drinking the warm blood of horſes at their feaſts, which horrid potion is ſaid to have had an intoxicating effect upon them. They are even ſaid to have been ignorant of the method of conſtructing huts to ſhelter them from the inclemency of the weather, and to have taken up their lodging in caves and hollows of trees and rocks, where they protected themſelves and their children from the inclemencies of the weather. The hiſtory of this kingdom therefore commences with the time when the country was firſt occupied by the Teutonic knights. Theſe were allowed a ſettlement here by Conrade duke of Mazovia, ſoon after the expulſion of the Chriſtians from the Holy Land by the Turks. At firſt they had only the territory of Culm aſſigned to them, but were allowed to conquer as much as they pleaſed from their barbarous neighbours. This grant was ſo well improved, that they ſoon conquered not only all Pruſ-

ſia,

ſia, but likewiſe became very troubleſome to the king of Poland, with whom they had frequent and bloody wars. Here they continued till the year 1531, when the laſt grand maſter, Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, was created duke of Pruſſia by Sigiſmund I. king of Poland. Thus it became the intereſt of the Houſe of Brandenburg to aſſiſt in expelling the Teutonic knights; and this was done with ſuch ſucceſs, that they were ſoon obliged to leave the country, which has ever ſince been ſubject to the ſovereigns of Brandenburg.

The electorate of Brandenburg is now the moſt conſiderable part of his Pruſſian Majeſty's dominions. It was conquered by Charles the Great; and in 927, Henry, ſurnamed the Fowler, firſt eſtabliſhed margraves, or governors of the frontiers, to keep the barbarians in awe. About the year 1100, the emperor, Conrade III. raiſed the margrave, Albert, ſurnamed *the Bear*, to the dignity of elector; but on his line becoming extinct in 1532, the electorate devolved on the empire. It then experienced a frequent change of maſters, being often ſold and re-ſold, until at laſt it fell into the hands of the burgrave of Nuremberg in 1417. He found himſelf poſſeſſed only of thoſe diviſions of the country called the Old and Middle Marches; but that named the March Ukrain had been uſurped by the dukes of Pomerania. Againſt them therefore the elector inſtantly declared war, and ſoon recovered the province. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederic, ſurnamed *Iron-tooth*, from his great ſtrength, and who might have been with equal propriety ſtiled the *Magnanimous*. As an inſtance of this he refuſed two crowns, viz. that of Bohemia, which was offered him by the Pope, and that of Poland, to which he was invited by the people. This conduct had ſuch an effect upon the people of Luſatia, that they ſurrendered their country to him; but as this was a fief of Bohemia, the king of that country made war upon him for the recovery of it. He was, however, ſo far from being ſucceſsful, that, by a treaty concluded in 1462, he was obliged to yield ſeveral other places to the elector; after which, Frederic, having redeemed ſome part of his dominions which were ſtill held by the Teutonic knights, reſigned the ſovereignty in 1469 to his brother Albert, ſurnamed the *Achilles*.

This prince had formerly been burgrave of Nuremburg, and moſt of the exploits for which the ſurname of Achilles was beſtowed upon him had been performed in that character. Theſe indeed were of the moſt extraordinary kind. He defeated and took priſoner Lewis duke of Bavaria. He fought eight battles againſt the rebellious Nurembergers, all of which he gained, and in one of them he fought ſingly againſt 16 men, till his own troops came to his aſſiſtance. He made himſelf maſter of the town of Greiſſenberg, in the ſame manner that Alexander the Great is ſaid to have become maſter of the capital of the Oxydracæ, by leaping into the town from the top of the walls, where he defended himſelf ſingly againſt the garriſon, till his men forced the gates and reſcued him. He gained the prize at 17 tournaments, and was never diſmounted. After his obtaining the electorate of Brandenburg, however, we hear no account of any remarkable exploit performed by this hero. In 1594 the duchy of Pruſſia was united to the electorate of Brandenburg by the marriage of the only daughter of Albert duke of Pruſſia, with John Sigiſmund elector of Brandenburg. This prince died in 1619, and was ſucceeded by his ſon George William; under whom the electorate ſuffered many and grievous calamities. At this

time the war between the Papists and Protestants commenced, and continued 30 years; and the latter would in all probability have been entirely destroyed, as has often been observed already, had it not been for the timely interposition of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden.

The elector, George William, died in 1640, leaving his dominions to his son Frederic William, surnamed *the Great*. He was only 20 years of age at the time of his accession to the sovereignty, but applied himself instantly with the greatest diligence to repair the losses occasioned by the dreadful wars which had preceded. He received the investiture of the duchy of Prussia personally from the king of Poland, on condition of paying 100,000 florins annually, and making neither truce nor peace with the enemies of that crown. His envoy likewise received the investiture of the electorate from the emperor Ferdinand III. The war still continued with the utmost fury, and the electoral dominions had been overrun by the Swedes; but with these the elector concluded a truce for 20 years, on which they evacuated most of the country. Still, however, they possessed some towns, for maintaining the garrisons of which, the elector paid 140,000 crowns annually; and he concluded a treaty with the Hessians, who delivered up a part of the duchy of Cleves; and obtained of the Hollanders the evacuation of some other places. After the conclusion of the treaty of Westphalia, the elector entered into a new one with Sweden; but notwithstanding this, the Swedes in a short time entered his dominions in an hostile manner. The elector opposed them with success, and gained many advantages; but he was so much pressed by the French under M. Turenne and the prince of Conde, that he was at last obliged to conclude a treaty with them. This was done at St Germain, and with this the military exploits of Frederic were concluded. He passed the remainder of his days in tranquillity, and greatly respected by all Europe. His fame had reached even to Tartary, and Murad Geray, cham of the Tartars, courted his friendship. The barbarian ambassador appeared in the most wretched attire, having scarce clothes sufficient to cover his nakedness, so that they were obliged to furnish him with others before he could appear at court. His interpreter had a wooden nose and no ears. Great numbers of Protestants who fled out of France from the persecution of Louis XIV. took up their residence in this country, and were kindly received by the elector; but his doing so gave offence to the French monarch.

In 1688, Frederic William died, and was succeeded by his son Frederic, the first who obtained the title of king of Prussia. He was a vain prince, excessively fond of show and ceremony; and indeed the obtaining of a regal title seemed to have been the great object of his desires through life. For this, he not only joined the emperor in an alliance against France, but yielded up the circle of Schwibus, which his predecessors had obtained. In 1700, he obtained the dignity he had so much desired, upon the following terms: 1. That Frederic should never separate from the empire those parts of his dominions which depended upon it. 2. That in the emperor's presence he should demand no other mark of honour but what he already enjoyed. 3. That when the emperor wrote to him, he should only give him the title of *Royal Dilection*. 4. That nevertheless, the ministers he had at Vienna, should be treated like those of other crowned heads. 5. That the elector should maintain 6000 men in Italy, at his own expence, in case the emperor should be obliged to make war on account of the succession

of the houſe of Bourbon to the crown of Spain; and that they ſhould continue there as long as the war laſted.

Frederic I. king of Pruſſia died in 1713, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederic II. He was almoſt totally the reverſe of his father, applying himſelf entirely to the augmentation of his army, and perfecting them in their exerciſe, by which means they became the moſt expert ſoldiers in Europe. His foible was a deſire of having his army compoſed of men conſiderably beyond the uſual ſtature; but, as this could not be obtained, he was obliged to content himſelf with a ſingle regiment of the talleſt he could pick out; and, as his officers were by no means ſcrupulous in ſeizing upon ſuch as they found for their purpoſe, they thus frequently gave offence to the neighbouring ſtates, ſo that even from this ridiculous cauſe, a war was often likely to enſue. Notwithſtanding this martial diſpoſition, however, Frederic never engaged in any military enterpriſe of conſequence; but, he put his army on a moſt reſpectable footing, and, by his œconomy, left ſuch a quantity of treaſure, as enabled his ſon, Frederic III. to perform thoſe exploits which filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment. In his reign, the enmity which naturally ſubſiſted between Auſtria and Pruſſia began to make its appearance; and frequent bickerings between the two powers took place. But on the death of Frederic II. in 1740, the flame broke forth in full force, owing to the ſeizure of the duchy of Sileſia, by the young king, Frederic III. The exploits of that prince, have been already related in the hiſtory of Germany. After having overcome all his difficulties, this great monarch applied himſelf to promote the good of his ſubjects, and the internal happineſs of the kingdom. He died in 1786, and was ſucceeded by Frederic William, his nephew, the preſent king; who hath not, as yet, attempted any military atchievement, farther than marching his troops into Holland, as has been related in the hiſtory of that country, and taking poſſeſſion of the biſhopric of Liege, which, however, it is not ſuppoſed he intends to keep for himſelf. The preſent king has given up his right to the city of Thorn in Poland, which had been ſeized upon by his uncle. The late king was indeed in ſome caſes, an oppreſſor, and did not ſcruple to enlarge his dominions at any rate, either right or wrong, when he could get it done; however, in others, he certainly had many amiable qualities. By a reſcript in 1783, he forbad all kneeling to his perſon, as this act of humiliation appeared to him too nearly to reſemble the homage paid to the divinity. In 1782 alſo, he expended near two millions of crowns in draining marſhes, ſettling colonies, eſtabliſhing factories, and relieving diſtreſs.

BOHEMIA.

BOHEMIA.

Extent, ſituation, and Boundaries. THIS country is of a roundiſh figure, and near 600 miles in circumference, lying between 48° 40′ and 51° of north latitude, and 12° 10′ and 17° 20′ eaſt longitude. It is bounded on the weſt by the Palatinate of Bavaria; on the eaſt by Poland and Hungary; on the north weſt by Saxony and Brandenburg; and on the ſouth by Auſtria, and weſt by Moravia.

Diviſions. There are three general diviſions of this kingdom, viz. Bohemia Proper, Sileſia and Moravia; which, with their extent and principal cities, are ſhown in the following table.

Diviſions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. moſtly ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria,	Prague, E. long. 14-40. N. lat. 49 57 Konningſgratz, E. Glatz, E. ſubject to the king of Pruſſia Egra, W.	Length 168 Breadth 145	12,080
2. Sileſia, Eaſt moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia,	Breſlaw, E. long. 17-20, N. lat. 51-00 Glogauz, N. Groſſen, N. Jagendorf, S. Tropaw, S. ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria Teſchen, S. ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria	Length 190 Breadth 93	10,300
3 Moravia, S. entirely ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria	Olmutz, E. long. 17-22. N. lat. 49-27 Brin, middle Igla, S. W.	Length 124 Breadth 90	5,426

Name. This kingdom is ſuppoſed to take its name from the *Bemi*, or *Beremi*, the old inhabitants. Theſe are by Tacitus called a great nation, and are thought to have been deſcended from the *Boij*, a Gauliſh people, who, to avoid the Roman yoke, migrated into theſe parts, from them called *Boiohemum*. The Dutch call it *Behemerland*.

Air, Soil, and Produce. The air of this kingdom is reckoned leſs wholeſome than that of Germany; but the ſoil is fruitful, and has many rich mines of different metals, but none of gold. Tin was diſcovered here in 1240, by a native of Cornwal, who had been baniſhed his own country, and was at that time in great requeſt; there being none in all Europe to be met with elſewhere, except in England. Wood is very plentiful, and they have as much corn as anſwers their own conſumption.

There are no vines; but ſaffron, and other medicinal ſimples are produced in abundance.

Mountains and Rivers. This country is almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, but few or none of them, are of any great note, though moſt are covered with wood. The principal rivers are the Elbe, which has its ſource in this country. The Eger, Muldaw and Wartz, are likewiſe conſiderable ſtreams, and all empty themſelves into the Elbe, which runs through the middle of the country.

Population, Inhabitants. &c. About a century and a half ago, the number of people in Bohemia was computed at three millions, though it is now ſuppoſed not to be much above two; but indeed of this we we have no certain accounts. In their perſons, manners, and cuſtoms, the Bohemians reſemble the Germans; and like them, they have the character of being great eaters and drinkers. The peaſants were in a ſtate of moſt abject ſlavery to their landlords; but the late emperor diſcharged all thoſe on his demeſnes from the ſtate of villenage in which they were held, though we have not heard that any of the nobility have followed ſuch a generous example. Formerly the inhabitants of this country were remarkable for their valour, and the vigorous oppoſition they made againſt the Popiſh religion; but their ſpirits are now much broken, and they are remarkable neither for military ſkill, nor knowledge of the arts.

Religion Though Popery is now the eſtabliſhed religion of this kingdom, there are a great number of Proteſtants, who enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion; and the Moravians have embraced ſome tenets, which though ſcarce accounted Proteſtantiſm, is nevertheleſs very different from Popery. Their doctrines have been propagated with great zeal by their miſſionaries, through various parts of the globe; they have a meeting houſe in London; and, by act of parliament, were allowed to ſettle in the plantations.

Archbiſhoprics, Biſhoprics. and Univerſities. The only archbiſhopric and univerſity in the kingdom is Prague. The biſhoprics are Koningſgratz, Breſlaw, and Olmutz

Language. The proper language of Bohemia is a dialect of the Sclavonic, but the German or High Dutch is generally ſpoken.

Principal Cities. Prague, the metropolis of the kingdom, is pleaſantly ſituated near the middle of it, on the river of Muldaw; and is thought to be the Marobuduum of Ptolemy; but its modern name was given by the Sclavonians. It is of great extent, being ſo large, that during the war of 1756, the grand Pruſſian army could never completely inveſt it; ſo that it is by no means eaſily taken. It is fortified with a wall, baſtions, and other works, which render it as ſtrong as a place of ſuch extent can be. It is divided into three parts, called the Old, New, and Little City. The firſt is very populous, and full of well built, but old faſhioned houſes. In former times, when John Huſs was rector of the univerſity, it is ſaid to have had 30,000 ſtudents, though now they do not exceed a fifth part of that number. There are many of colleges, and that which formerly belonged to the Jeſuits is a very magnificent building. A conſiderable number of Jews inhabited this part of the city before the late war in Germany, but they were expelled from thence, as well as from moſt parts of the kingdom, on a ſuſpicion of correſponding with the king of Pruſſia. The ancient town ſtood probably on the ſame ſpot where that called the Old Town is now ſituated,

uated, and is thought to have been firſt built upon an eminence in the neigbourhood, where the firſt dukes of Bohemia had their caſtle, and where king Wratiſlus built a church in 1088. The new town was formerly ſeparated from the old by a wall, but now only by a ditch, into which they can let the water at pleaſure. The little town lies on the weſt ſide of the river Muldaw, and is much more pleaſant, and the houſes better built than either the old or new towns. It is joined to the old town by a bridge, reckoned one of the fineſt in Europe; 1700 feet long, and 35 broad, with 24 arches, all of them of hewn ſtone. Over every pier they have put the ſtatue of a ſaint on each ſide, and a great crucifix of copper gilt, which the Jews were obliged to put up in this place by way of atonement, for ſome inſult offered by them to the Chriſtian religion. It has two high gates under two large towers, at each end. Part of the town is built on a riſing ground, at the top of which ſtands Upper Prague. Here the empreſs queen had a ſummer-houſe, and a fine old palace, with ſeveral large halls and galleries, beſides a number of other apartments, adorned with handſome pictures. The great hall of the palace, where the coronation feaſt is kept, is one of the largeſt of the kind, ſome ſay next to Weſtminſter. In the court of the palace is an equeſtrian ſtatue of St. George in bronze, made in the year 1333. The mathematical houſe in the garden is looked upon as a very fine piece of architecture, though not entirely free from blemiſhes. It was built for Tycho Brahe, or at leaſt applied to his uſe. Within the incloſure of the palace ſtands the cathedral, dedicated to St. Vitus, which is famous for being the burying-place of the kings of Bohemia, and of the two patrons of the country, St. Wenceſlaus, and St. John Nepomucenus. The chapel of the former is lined with all kinds of Bohemian jaſpers of fine colours; in many of which, there is a mixture of amethyſts and agates, but ſet together in a very irregular manner. The leſſer town is adorned with the houſes of the principal nobility, many of which are very grand; and one in particular has a bed chamber entirely hung and furniſhed with cloth of gold, and adorned with ſilk Indian work. The city has but little trade, owing principally to its want of manufactures: the ſhops are ill furniſhed, and the lower claſs of people look very poor. About this place is found plenty of rock chryſtal, which has a fine luſtre when poliſhed, and is uſed for ear-rings, ſhirt buttons, drinking glaſſes, and luſtres. The number of inhabitants in Prague is diſproportioned to its bulk, being ſuppoſed not to exceed 83,000; which may probably be owing to its having ſo frequently ſuffered the calamities of war.

Conſtitution and Government. Though the forms of the old Bohemian government ſtill remains, yet the power of the emperor is unlimited; but as they have a general averſion to the Auſtrians, the ſovereigns have lately been cautious of provoking them, leſt they ſhould be driven to rebellion. The ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of towns. This kingdom has been often taken for a part in Germany, but is none of the nine Circles, nor is it ſubject to any of its laws. The miſtake has probably ariſen from this circumſtance, that the king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector of the empire, and their kings have been frequently choſen emperors.

Revenues. Of theſe we can not give any exact account, as they depend entirly

entirely upon the will of the emperor, who exacts what he has a mind from the ſtates, who aſſemble annually at Prague. They are ſuppoſed not to be leſs than half a million Sterling.

Arms. Theſe are Argent, Or, a lion gules, the tail moved and paſſed in Saltier, crowned, langued, and armed, Or,

Hiſtory. The kingdom of Bohemia was founded by the *Sclavi*, a barbarous nation, who firſt began to be known by that name in the time of Juſtinian, when they inhabited the borders of the Euxine Sea. Afterwards, migrating farther to the weſtward, they ſpread themſelves over ſeveral parts of Germany, as well as Bohemia. About the year 640, a Sclavonian, or Croatian prince, named *Zechius*, who was baniſhed his country with his brother *Lechus* for murder, having collected a freſh body of Sclavonians, Croatians, &c. joined his countrymen in Bohemia. Here he was held in ſuch eſtimation, as to be made their prince, or chief governor; nay, the Bohemians to this day call themſelves by the name of Zechians. After his death, an anarchy enſued till the year 670, when they choſe for their duke one *Crocus*, a man held in high eſtimation among them, and after his death, wearied of the government of his daughter Libuſſa, they choſe a huſband for her, one *Primuſlaus* a ploughman, whom they elected their duke. The reaſon of this ſtrange choice is ſaid to have been follows. The lady having many ſuitors, it was agreed among them that a horſe ſhould be let looſe, and the man before whom he firſt made a ſtand ſhould be her huſband, and have the government. The country continued to be governed by dukes till the year 1086, when Wratiſlaus was created king by the emperor Henry IV.

Chriſtianity was firſt preached here in 900, by St. Methodius, the biſhop and apoſtle of the Moravians. The ſame corruptions were introduced as in other countries, but here the work of reformation was begun much ſooner by John Huſs, and Jerom of Prague, two men of whom the Bohemians greatly boaſt. This occaſioned long and bloody wars: The reformers, violent and barbarous, having formed themſelves into a party, under pretence of aſſerting their civil rights, threw ſome of the emperor's meſſengers out at a window, and then broke out into open rebellion. In this they were headed by the celebrated Ziſca, the greateſt general Bohemia ever produced. He defeated the Imperial forces in eleven different engagements, and was ſo confident of his being invincible by them, that he deſired his countrymen when he ſhould be dead to take off his ſkin, and make a drum of it. This was accordingly done, but the Imperialiſts having found means to ſow diſſentions among their enemies, at laſt overcame them, notwithſtanding their drum. In 1437, the kingdom of Bohemia devolved on the houſe of Auſtria, in which it continued till 1618, when the people, oppreſſed on account of religion, choſe for their king Frederic elector Palatine, ſon-in-law to James I. of Britain; whom they ſuppoſed to be able to defend them againſt the power of the emperor Ferdinand II. In this they were greatly miſtaken. The elector, with only 30,000 men, having engaged the Imperial generals, the duke of Bavaria and count Bucquoy, with 50,000, was entirely defeated, and obliged to quit Prague with his queen, and fly into his own dominions. Here he was quickly attacked and driven out alſo; after which he was obliged to depend on the court of Britain for ſubſiſtence, and the Bohemians were finally reduced to ſubmit to the power of the emperor, under which they have remained ever ſince.

HUNGARY.

HUNGARY.

Extent, Situation, and Boundaries. THIS kingdom extends in length about 300 miles, and about 200 in breadth, lying between 45 and 50 degrees of north latitude, and 16-30 and 22 eaſt longitude, and is ſuppoſed to contain an area of about 36,000 ſquare miles. Under this name was formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and ſome other countries; but that which belongs to the Houſe of Auſtria, and is properly called Hungary, is of much leſs extent; being bounded on the weſt by Auſtria and Moravia; on the eaſt by Moldavia and Walachia; on the north by Poland; and on the ſouth by Sclavonia. It is uſually divided into Upper and Lower Hungary. The principal places in both theſe diviſions are exhibited in the following table.

Upper HUNGARY, north of the Danube.	Lower HUNGARY, ſouth of the Danube.
Chief Towns.	Chief Towns.
Preſburg, ſituated on the Danube, E. long. 17-40, N. lat. 48-5.	Buda, on the Danube, E. long. 19-20, N. lat. 47-25.
Newhauſel, N. W.	Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.
Leopolſtadt, N W.	Comorn, on the Danube, in the iſland of Schut.
Chremnits, N. W.	Raab. on the Danube, oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Schemnits, in the middle	Altenburg, W. oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Eſperies, N.	Weiſſenburg, or Alba Regalis, ſituated E. of the lake called the Platten Sea
Caſchaw, N.	Kaniſba, S. W. of the Platten Sea.
Tokay, N. E.	Five Churches, N. of the river Drave.
Zotmar, N. E.	
Unguar, N. E.	
Mongats, N. E.	
Waradin, Great, E.	
Segedin, S. E.	
Agria, in the middle	
Peſt, on the Danube, oppoſite to Buda	

Beſides theſe we may account the province of Temeſwar a part of this kingdom. It is upwards of 90 miles long, and near 70 in breadth; containing about 3800 ſquare miles, and is divided into the four diſtricts of Cſadar, Temeſwar, Werſches, and Lugos. It has been conſidered as diſtinct from Hungary, being formerly governed by an independent prince, and the Turks have ſeveral times made themſelves maſters of it; but in 1778 the Auſtrians obtained poſſeſſion and it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary. Temeſwar, the capital, ſtands in N. lat 45° 36′, and E. long. 21° 0′.

Air, Soil, and Produce. The air of the ſouthern parts of Hungary is very unwholeſome, by reaſon of the great number of marſhes with which

which the country abounds; from Belgrade, on the ſouth bank of the Danube, to Vipolanka, 35 miles eaſt, and north as far as Tokay, a diſtance of 200 more, being one continued marſh; as alſo between the Danube and the river Teys, from where it joins the former, near 100 miles; all of which render the interior parts of Hungary more unhealthy than any other part of Europe; but in the northern parts it is much more pure and agreeable. In theſe northern parts, however, the ſoil is mountainous and barren; but exceedingly rich in the ſouth, producing corn in ſuch abundance, that it ſells for one-ſixth of the price of it in this country. The moſt delicious wines are alſo produced here, as well as excellent fruits.

Rivers, Lakes, and Mineral Waters. The principal rivers are the Danube, Save, Drave, Teys, Meriſh, and Kuneret. There are ſeveral conſiderable lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains, of conſiderable extent, and well ſtored with fiſh. The baths and mineral waters in this kingdom are eſteemed the beſt in Europe, and had formerly very magnificent buildings, particularly at Buda; but theſe are now ſuffered to go to decay.

Mountains. The principal of theſe are the Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary; but there are likewiſe many detached ones throughout the kingdom; the tops of which are covered with timber, while the lower parts produce excellent vines, yielding the fineſt grapes in the world.

Metals and Minerals. In theſe Hungary is richer than any other country in Europe, producing not only great abundance of the coarſer metals, but of gold and ſilver alſo; ſo that in former times they yielded a vaſt revenue to the ſovereigns. At that time the Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint-houſes in Germany and other parts of Europe, as well as in Hungary itſelf; but the value of the mines is now greatly diminiſhed, the works of moſt of them being deſtroyed; though ſome are ſtill worked with very conſiderable profit to the natives.

Animal and Vegetable Productions. This country is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, generally of a mouſe colour, very ſwift, and extremely fit for military purpoſes; for which reaſon great numbers of them are exported to other countries. They are ſo numerous, that the kings of Hungary have ſometimes brought 50,000 cavalry into the field. In the neighbourhood of Preſburg is a breed of rams of an uncommon ſize; and there is throughout the kingdom a good breed of buffaloes, which anſwer the purpoſes of oxen in huſbandry. The rivers of Hungary abound ſo much with fiſh, that a thouſand carps have ſometimes been ſold for a crown; and in ſome places it is common to give them to the hogs. The country is infeſted with wolves in ſome parts; ſo that travelling is dangerous in the night time; and there is alſo much danger near the frontier towns from the great dogs which are turned out in the night to alarm the garriſons, and prevent a ſurpriſe. There is great plenty of game of all kinds, which every one is at liberty to purſue as much as he pleaſes. The Hungarian wines, particularly Tokay, are inferior to none. The latter indeed is preferred to every other kind, thoſe of Burgundy and Champagne not excepted.

Population, Inhabitants, &c. The number of inhabitants in Upper and Lower Hungary is eſtimated at about two millions and an half; but there is good reaſon to believe, that if proper encouragement was

given to the people to drain their fens, and thus render the country a little more healthy than it is, their numbers would ſoon be very conſiderably increaſed As matters ſtand at preſent indeed no country can be more deſtructive to the human frame. It is generally viſited once in three or four years by an epidemic diſeaſe brought from Turkey, of a very peſtilential nature; beſides which, the putrid exhalations of the marſhes produce fevers of a moſt malignant kind, which occaſion the untimely death of many thouſands It has been particularly fatal to the Germans, when they contended with the Turks for the dominion of the country during the two laſt centuries. Before the taking of Conſtantinople by the Turks, Hungary was reckoned one of the moſt populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe.

Manners and Cuſtoms, &c. The manners of the inhabitants are conſiderably different from thoſe of the Germans, and they value themſelves not a little on being deſcended from the people who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Infidels. They are generally well made; the men wear fur caps, cloſe bodied coats, girded by a ſaſh, with their cloak and mantle, which is ſo contrived as to buckle under their arm; by which means the right hand is always at liberty, and they have the greater appearance of military dignity. They ſhave their beards, but preſerve the whiſkers on the upper lip. In the field they have a broad-ſword and pole-ax, beſides their fire arms. The ladies are accounted handſome, and are generally dreſſed in black with ſtrait ſleeves, and their ſtays faſtened before with little buttons of gold, diamond, or pearl. In the mine-towns both men and women wear dreſſes of fur, and even ſheep's ſkin, which make a ſtrange appearance In general they are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to be carried on by foreigners. Travelling in this country is generally, or at leaſt very frequently performed by water, or in an open chariot with three or four horſes abreaſt. The inns throughout Hungary are moſt miſerable hovels; and, in the houſes of the peaſants, the hogs, which afford almoſt all the animal food they have, occupy part of the lodging, as well as their owners. The diverſions of the Hungarians are generally characteriſtic of the people, being of the martial and athletic kind In this country, particularly the province of Temeſwar, there are conſiderable numbers of gypſies, whom it is dangerous to meet on the road. Among theſe it is ſaid that many of the ancient Egyptian ſuperſtitions prevail; particularly the laſcivious dances in honour of Iſis; the worſhip of onions; and that the method of hatching chickens by the heat of dung is ſtill practiſed among them.

Religion. Though the eſtabliſhed religion of Hungary is the Roman Catholic, yet the greater part of the people are Proteſtants, all of whom now enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. A conſiderable number alſo profeſs the doctrines of the Greek church.

Language. This is perhaps the only country in the world where the Latin is ſtill a living language. Here it is ſpoken, either pure or barbarous, by almoſt all ranks. The higher claſſes ſpeak German; and there are many dialects, ſome of which reſemble the Hebrew.

Archbiſhoprics, Biſhoprics, and Univerſities. The archbiſhoprics of Hungary are Preſburg, Gran, and Colocza; the biſhoprics. Agria, Great Waradin, Raab, Veſprin, and Five Churches. The univerſities are Firman, Buda, Raab, and Caſchaw; but they are trifling eſtabliſhments: however, there are ſome profeſſors of different ſciences, who

were commonly Jeſuits before the ſuppreſſion of that order. The children of the Hungarian Proteſtants therefore went to the German univerſities.

Curioſities. Among theſe we may reckon the bridge at Eſſeck over the Danube, which is a continuation of bridges for no leſs than five miles. Being an important paſs in time of war, it is fortified with towers at proper diſtances. There is a bridge of boats half a mile in length between Buda and Peſt; and at the diſtance of about 80 Engliſh miles from Belgrade are the remains of the bridge of Trajan, thought to be the moſt magnificent in the world. In a mountain near Szelitze is a remarkable cavern, whoſe mouth is 18 fathoms high, and eight in breadth. Its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, and extend farther to the ſouth than any perſon has yet choſen to venture. As far as they have gone, the height of the roof is eſtimated at 50 fathoms, and the breadth at 26. Rocks of a ſurpriſing figure are frequently to be met with in Hungary.

Chief Cities. The cities of Hungary were formerly very magnificent, but are now greatly decayed, though many of them are ſtill ſtrongly fortified. The regalia of Hungary were kept in Preſburg, but lately removed to Vienna. The crown was made after the form of the Greek emperor's, and is of ſolid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with one large emerald, 53 ſapphires, 50 rubies, and 338 pearls. It has alſo upon it images of the apoſtles and patriarchs. It was ſent, in the year 1000, by Pope Sylveſter II. to Stephen king of Hungary; and to this was afterwards given by the Pontiffs a ſilver patriarchal croſs, which was inſerted in the arms of the kingdom. This croſs is carried before the king at the ceremony of a coronation; and from this he takes the title of the Apoſtolic King, which was lately renewed by Maria Thereſa. The ſceptre and globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold; and the mantle is of fine linen, wrought by Giſele, the ſpouſe of St Stephen, who embroidered in gold the image of Jeſus Chriſt crucified, with many inſcriptions, images of the patriarchs, and other ornaments. The ſword is round at the point, and has two edges.

Buda, formerly the capital of the kingdom, is a large and well fortified place, though greatly inferior to what it once was; having been in the poſſeſſion of the Turks for 135 years. The upper town is ſituated upon the declivity of a mountain, having good walls, and towers at proper diſtances. The caſtle, which is at the extremity of the hill on the eaſt ſide, and commands the greateſt part of it, is ſurrounded by a deep ditch, and defended by an old tower, to which ſeveral new fortifications have been added. The lower town, called alſo that of the Jews, extends from the upper town to the Danube like a ſuburbs. The houſes in both are handſome, and well built. The baths here are very much celebrated, both for the magnificence of the buildings, and the efficacy of the water, as well as the quantity of it. Here are likewiſe ponds of hot water, which have a kind of fiſh peculiar to themſelves, and which die as ſoon as taken out of their proper element and put into cold water. This city is looked upon to be the key to the whole Chriſtian world, and therefore eſteemed a place of great importance, though probably more ſo formerly than now. It was taken by the Turks in 1526, but recovered in 1527 by Ferdinand archduke of Auſtria; and in 1529 it was again taken by the Turks. It was unſucceſsfully beſieged by the Chriſtians in 1684, with an army of 80,000 men; but in 1686 it was taken by

by aſſault, in the face of a numerous Turkiſh army. Next year it was in danger of being loſt a third time through treachery; but has ſince been ſtrengthened with many additional fortifications. The other cities of conſequence in Hungary are Peſt, Gran, Comorn, and Tokay.

Commerce and Manufactures. Theſe are not in a very flouriſhing ſtate throughout this kingdom. There is little trade beſides the exportation of cattle and wine; nor are there manufactures of importance, except thoſe of copper and other metals; we may reduce the commodities of Hungary to cattle, wine, medicinal drugs, metals, and ſalt.

Conſtitution and Government. The government, however deſpotic, is apparently checked by ſeveral limitations of the royal prerogative. They have a diet reſembling our parliament, and an Hungary-office which ſits at Vienna, and reſembles the Court of Chancery at London. At Preſburg is a municipal juriſdiction, called the Stadtholder's Council, which reſembles the Britiſh Privy Council. Every royal town alſo has its ſenate; and there are a ſet of officers, named *Geſpan Chaſts*, who reſemble our Juſtices of Peace. There is alſo an exchequer, nine chambers, and ſeveral inferior courts. It is remarkable that the Hungarians have an extreme averſion to the title of *Queen*, inſomuch, that they beſtowed that of *King* upon the late empreſs Maria Thereſa.

Military Strength. Though this kingdom is now fallen from its former population, the emperor can bring into the field an army of 50,000 Hungarians; but it is ſeldom that more than 10,000 are ſent out of their own country. Theſe are moſtly a kind of light horſe, well known by the name of Huſſars; the foot being called *Heydukes*. The latter wear a number of feathers in their caps, to denote the enemies they have killed. The huſſars have been found of ſuch ſervice in war, that they are employed by the greateſt powers in Europe. Both horſe and foot are an excellent militia, but more proper for plundering or ravaging a country than for pitched battles.

Coins. This kingdom was formerly remarkable for its coins, many of which are ſtill preſerved in the cabinets of the curious. Theſe indeed are ſaid to be ſo complete as to exhibit an exact liſt of their former kings. A great number of Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country; more, it is ſaid, than in any other in Europe.

Arms. For Hungary the emperor bears quarterly barwiſe, argent and gules, of eight pieces.

Hiſtory. The name of Hungary is taken from the Hunns, a nation of barbarians who formerly overran a great part of the weſtern world. Theſe came originally from that part of Sarmatia bordering on the Palus Mœotis and the Tanais, forming the boundary between Europe and Aſia; and in this place they reſided, ignorant of other nations, and unknown by them, till the year 376. At this time they are ſaid firſt to have diſcovered that there were other countries beſides their own, by the following accident. An hind, purſued by the hunters, or, according to others, an ox ſtung by a gad-fly, having paſſed the marſh, was followed by ſome Hunns, who entered the country, at that time inhabited by the Alans, and which appeared to them much more agreeable than their own. On reporting what they had ſeen to their countrymen, the whole nation croſſed the marſh, and falling upon the unfortunate Alans like as many furies riſen from the infernal regions, almoſt totally exterminated them. Not content with the poſſeſſion of this country, they next fell upon the Oſtrogoths, whom they forced to retire into the diſ-

trict now called Podolia. Then attacking the Viſigoths, they drove them to the mountains; till at laſt the Gothic nations, finding themſelves overpowered by ſuch an inundation of unheard of barbarians, obtained leave from Valens, emperor of Conſtantinople, to ſettle in Thrace.

The Hunns having now obtained a large tract of country, viz. all that lying between the Tanais and the Danube, and which they had conquered in one year, continued quiet till 388, when Theodoſius I. took great numbers of them into his pay; but in the mean time, a party who had remained in Aſia overran Meſopotamia, and committed every where the moſt dreadful ravages and devaſtations. Thoſe in Europe frequently paſſed the Danube, and committed equal devaſtations in the weſtern empire; ſo that, as the power of the Romans was now greatly declined, it ſeemed to be in danger of total extinction by theſe barbarians. In 441, the power of the Hunns was at its height, under the celebrated Attila. This monarch, having made himſelf maſter of all the northern countries from the confines of Perſia to the banks of the Rhine, invaded Moeſia, Thrace, and Illyricum, where he made ſuch progreſs, that the emperor, not thinking himſelf ſafe in Conſtantinople, removed into Aſia. On this Attila invaded Gaul, where for ſome time he maſſacred and deſtroyed as uſual; but in the end was overthrown with ſuch ſlaughter by Ætius, the Roman general, and Theodoric, king of the Goths, that he could never afterwards make any great progreſs. In the year 452, or 453, the world was freed from this tormentor and deſtroyer of mankind. His numerous children waged perpetual war with each other after his death, and his empire was immediately divided into a number of ſmall kingdoms; ſo that the Hunns ſoon ceaſed to be formidable, and became daily leſs capable of coping with the barbarous nations whom Attila had kept in ſubjection. Still, however, their power was very conſiderable, and as late as the time of Charlemagne, they poſſeſſed Tranſylvania, Walachia, Servia, Carniola, Carinthia, the greater part of Auſtria, together with Boſnia, Sclavonia, and that part of Hungary which lies beyond the Danube. Two of their princes courted the alliance of Charles in 776; but though he granted their requeſt, they ſoon after entered into a league againſt him with the duke of Bavaria. Charles diſſembled his reſentment till he had got his other enemies ſubdued, when, having aſſembled a very numerous army, he entered the country of the Hunns, ravaging it far and near, taking their fortified places, and deſtroying their villages. This cruel execution he continued for no leſs than eight years, till the people were almoſt totally exterminated; nor did they ever afterwards recover themſelves, or appear as a diſtinct nation.

After the deſtruction of the Hunns, the Goths, Lombards, Avari, and Sclavi, ſettled in this country; and in the cloſe of the ninth century, the nation called *Anigours*, from the banks of the Wolga, took poſſeſſion of it. At firſt theſe nations were governed by *dukes*; but the laſt of theſe having embraced Chriſtianity, and tranſmitted the government to his ſon Stephen, alſo a Chriſtian, he was honoured with the title of king in the year 1000. But, as the throne was filled by election, though generally out of the ſame family, the diſpoſal of the crown was diſputed between the emperors of Germany and Turkey for near 200 years. On the advancement of Ferdinand archduke of Auſtria to the throne in 1527, the Auſtrians found means to influence the elections in ſuch a manner, that it was kept in their family till the year 1687, and at

at laſt finally ſettled on their heirs male; and afterwards by the Pragmatic Sanction on the females alſo. Before Hungary was united to the Auſtrian dominions, its ſovereigns performed many great military exploits. In 1310, king Charles Robert ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; though moſt of theſe conqueſts were afterwards recovered by the Venetians and others. A little before the taking of Conſtantinople by the Turks, John Hunniades, guardian to the infant king Ladiſlaus, diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his ſucceſs againſt the Turks; but, though he gained many victories at firſt, he was at laſt overcome, and the city ſuffered to fall into the hands of the Infidels. In 1526, Lewis king of Hungary having engaged in a war with the Turks, was by them defeated and killed, and this was accompanied with ſuch ſlaughter of his troops, that the deſtruction of the kingdom was thought to be at hand. It was preſerved, however, by the marriage of Ferdinand arch-duke of Auſtria, and brother to the emperor Charles V. with the ſiſter of the deceaſed monarch, which united the Auſtrian and Hungarian dominions, and which have continued to be ſo ever ſince.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, and that part of DALMATIA which belongs to HUNGARY.

THESE countries are much leſs known than ſuch as we have already deſcribed, and therefore we cannot pretend to determine their boundaries, or give ſuch particular accounts of them in other reſpects as has been done with regard to thoſe treated of in the former part of this work.

TRANSYLVANIA makes part of the Auſtrian dominions, and is ſeparated by the Carpathian mountains on the north from Poland; on the eaſt it has Moldavia and part of Walachia; on the ſouth it has the other part of Walachia; and on the weſt it has Upper and Lower Hungary. It is about 116 miles in breadth, and 170 in length, ſurrounded on all ſides by high mountains. The produce is nearly the ſame with that of Hungary; but, though conſiderable quantities of wine are produced in it, it is not eſteemed equal to the Hungarian. It is ſuppoſed to yield but little to the Auſtrian revenue; and the people here enjoy not only an unlimited toleration in religious matters, but many great privileges unknown in other parts of their dominions. The only commodities exported are ſome metals and ſalt, which are ſent to Hungary. Proviſions of all kinds, however, are very plentiful and cheap. The principal place is Hermanſtadt, ſo called from one Herman a Saxon its founder. It is ſituated on the river Ceben, and is large, populous, and very ſtrong, ſurrounded with a double wall and ramparts flanked with thick

thick baſtions, beſides a deep ditch; but is inacceſſible by reaſon of a great number of fiſh ponds and other ſtagnant waters in the neighbourhood. The air, however, is very unhealthy, ſo that many of the beſt houſes are uninhabited. In this country it is reckoned an extraordinary piece of magnificence to have houſes covered with ſlates; but this is the caſe with moſt of the houſes within the walls of Hermanſtadt. There are ſeveral good ſprings about the city, and beſides theſe the water of the river is conveyed by little channels through every ſtreet in the city. Hermanſtadt is a granary for the whole principality; and by means of the ſtores which they keep under ground, the inhabitants were enabled to hold out for ſeven years againſt Lewis king of Hungary. The principal trade is in cloth and mead, for the conſumption of the neighbouring country. The internal government has ſtill many remains of the feudal ſyſtem, being divided among many independent ſtates and princes. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtadt; and the governor has a council compoſed of Lutherans, Calviniſts, and Papiſts. There is a parliament, which meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom they have lately paid more homage than formerly. In caſe of grievances they have liberty to make repreſentations and remonſtrances to him.

This country made part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which made a ſtout reſiſtance to the Romans, but were at length totally ſubdued. On the decline of their empire the country was over-run by the Goths, and afterwards by the Hunns, who retained it till the time of Charles the Great, by whom they were almoſt extirpated, as has already been related. The inhabitants are ſtill of a martial diſpoſition, and were of conſiderable ſervice to the Houſe of Auſtria in their late wars. They are very impatient of any attack upon their liberties, and have frequently made violent reſiſtance againſt their oppreſſors. In the year 1784, a body of near 16,000 roſe againſt ſome of the nobility, and ravaged their eſtates. Having taken a ſufficient revenge, they offered terms of ſubmiſſion, and were pardoned; only a few of the ringleaders being puniſhed.

SCLAVONIA is ſituated between 16° and 20° 30′ of eaſt longitude, and 44° 50′ and 47° of north latitude; extending in length near 200 miles, and between 50 and 60 in breadth. It is bounded on the weſt by Kiria in Auſtria; on the eaſt by the Danube; on the north by the Drave; and on the ſouth by the Save. Both this country and Tranſylvania contain a vaſt mixture of inhabitants, differing from one another in their manners, languages, and cuſtoms. The reaſon of this is, that the countries we treat of were among thoſe who made the greateſt reſiſtance to the Romans, and afforded an aſylum to great numbers of thoſe who fled from them in other parts. Their reſiſtance was facilitated by the depth and rapidity of the rivers, and the thickneſs of the woods; and, notwithſtanding all the efforts of the Turks, Auſtrians, Hungarians, and Poles, their deſcendents have ſcarce ever been thoroughly ſubdued. They continue to pay a ſubmiſſion indeed to the power which leaves them moſt at liberty, and have of late ſhewn a great attachment to the Houſe of Auſtria, and ſeveral times have been of great ſervice to it, as we have already had occaſion to obſerve; and as a remarkable inſtance of this, we ſhall only further take notice, that it is well known they preſerved the crown in the imperial family, by preventing the Pragmatic Sanction from being broken through. It is thought the word

ſlave

ſlave is derived from the Sclavonians, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage by the Romans and other nations. The devaſtations occaſioned by the frequent wars which theſe people have waged, however, are ſtill to be perceived in the country; though otherwiſe it is no leſs fertile than either Hungary or Tranſylvania. Beſides the native Sclavonians, we here meet with Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, Servians, and many others, whoſe names were unknown to the Auſtrians themſelves, except from their muſter rolls. Peter-Wardin, ſituated on the ſouth bank of the Danube, 40 miles north-weſt of Belgrade, is one of the frontier towns, and remarkable for a great victory obtained over the Turks in its neighbourhood by prince Eugene in 1716. The capital is Poſega, 160 miles S. E. of Vienna, which is alſo the ſee of a biſhop. Sclavonia was united to Hungary in 1746, and the ſtates ſend repreſentatives to the diet.

CROATIA is bounded on the eaſt by Sclavonia, on the ſouth by Boſnia; on the ſouth-weſt by Morlachia and Iſtria: and on the weſt by Carniola; making part of the country anciently known by the name of Illyricum. The inhabitants are deſcended from the Slavi or Sclavonians, and were formerly called *Kruati*; from whence the preſent name of *Croatia* is derived. It is about 80 miles long and 70 broad; and the inhabitants reſemble thoſe of Sclavonia and Tranſylvania. All of them make excellent irregular troops, known by the name of *Pandours*, and other appellations. Indeed all the authority exerciſed by the Auſtrians over theſe extreme parts of their dominions ſeems to be their occaſionally calling a number of troops into the field. The principal town is Zagrab; and Carolſtadt is alſo a place of ſome note.

HUNGARIAN DALMATIA is bounded on the north and eaſt by Boſnia; on the ſouth-eaſt by Albania; and on the weſt by the Adriatic Sea and the Gulf of Venice. It has ſome navigable rivers, though their courſe is but ſhort. The country, though full of mountains, is not unfruitful, producing wines, olive and myrtle trees, with numbers of medicinal ſimples. There are alſo ſome gold and ſilver mines; and there are plenty of cattle, particularly ſheep. The principal place is Segna, 130 miles S. E. of Venice, ſituated near the ſea, and well fortified, but in a barren and mountainous country. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has twelve churches and two convents. There is an old palace, called the Royal Caſtle, which is the reſidence of the governor. Ottoſchaitz is a fortification on the frontiers, ſtanding on a river named Gatzka. It is partly ſurrounded with a wall and ſome towers; but the reſt of the buildings are mean, and built on piles in the water; ſo that the inhabitants cannot viſit each other without a boat. Near Segna dwell a people called *Uſcocs*; a name derived from a word ſignifying deſerters; they having fled thither from oppreſſion in the neighbouring countries. They pretend to ſubſiſt by keeping of cattle, but are much given to robbery, for which they are very fit, being large bodied and courageous. They ſpeak the language of Walachia; and in religious matters approach neareſt the Greek church, though ſome are Roman Catholics. They have the name of Springers or Leapers, from the agility with which they jump from rock to rock in that rough and mountainous country. The three provinces of Sclavonia, Croatia, and Dalmatia are governed by one viceroy. In the 15th century, the Venetians were maſters of all Dalmatia; but afterwards the Turks

and

and Raguſans took moſt of it from them; however, they are ſtill in poſſeſſion of ſome of the maritime parts

The emperor has alſo ſome part of Walachia; though moſt of it is ſubject to the Turks. The principal towns are Buccoreſt, Szurza and Tregoviſc.

POLAND, including LITHUANIA.

Situation and Extent. THIS country, lying between 46 and 57 degrees of north latitude, and 16 and 34 eaſt longitude, is almoſt 700 miles long, and very little leſs in breadth.

Boundaries, &c. Before the late diſmemberment of Poland, it was bounded on the eaſt by Muſcovy; on the weſt by Germany; on the north by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic Sea; and on the ſouth by Hungary and part of Turkey in Europe. The principal diviſions were as follow.

Grand Diviſions.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Courland, ſubject to Ruſſia.	4,416	175	89	Mittaw
G. Dutchy of Lithuania,				Grodno
Lithuania,	64,810	334	316	Wilna { Great part of this diſtrict is now poſſeſſed by Ruſſia.
Podolia,	29,100	366	129	Caminieck
Volhinia,	25,000	306	159	Lucko
Great Poland,	19,210	208	180	Gneſna
Red Ruſſia,	25,200	233	186	Lemburg { Now chiefly ſubject to Auſtria.
Little Poland,	18,010	239	130	Cracow
Poieſia,	14,000	186	96	Breſſici
Maſovia,	8,400	153	90	WARSAW { E. lon. 21-15. N. lat. 52-9.
Samogitia,	8,010	156	100	Raſiem
Pruſſia Royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia,	6,400	118	106	Elbing { Now ſub. to Pruſſia
Polachia,	4,010	134	43	Bielh
Total	226,566			

Dantzic, Elbing, and Thorn, in Pruſſia Royal, are ſtyled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; the two laſt were ſeized by the late king of Pruſſia, and moſt of the privileges of the firſt.

Name. This is generally ſuppoſed to come from the Sclavonian word *Polo*, which ſignifies a country fit for hunting; an epithet very properly beſtowed upon Poland, as being not only much overgrown with wood, but very level, and abounding with game of every kind.

Climate. The air of Poland, notwithſtanding its northerly ſituation, is more temperate than could be expected; though about the Carpathian mountains, whoſe tops are perpetually covered with ſnow, it is undoubtedly very chilly. Its climate is likewiſe very ſettled both in winter and ſummer, which probably may be owing to the extenſive level without mountains to condenſe the vapours, or to occaſion ſtorms, which are always very frequent in mountainous countries. The numerous woods and moraſſes, however, render the air much leſs wholeſome than it would be, were the country better improved and cultivated.

Soil, Produce, &c. The kingdom of Poland is generally fertile, producing vaſt quantities of corn, which are brought down the Viſtula to Dantzic, in order to be exported to other nations. Its paſtures alſo are extremely rich, and the graſs is ſo luxuriant, that it is ſaid almoſt to cover the cattle which graze in the meadows. It produces ſilver, copper, iron, vaſt quantities of rock-ſalt, and coals in abundance. The products of Lithuania are much the ſame; and it has beſides falſe gems, agate, marble, and vaſt numbers of marine bodies petrefied. In many places clay fit for pipes and earthen ware is met with. Timber abounds in the internal parts of Poland to ſuch a degree, that the houſes are conſtructed of it entirely. In ſome places grapes are produced, which are excellent when properly cultivated, but the Poliſh wine ſeldom comes to perfection. Much amber is found in Lithuania, being ſometimes dug up in pieces as large as a man's fiſt.

Rivers and Lakes. The principal rivers in this country are the Viſtula, or Weſel, the Bog, Dwina, Neiſter, and Neiper, or Boriſthenes. The principal lake in Poland lies in the palatinate of Byzeſky, and is called *Gopto;* there is alſo another, called *Birals*, or White Lake, but which is ſaid to have a property very oppoſite to its name, viz. that of dyeing thoſe of a ſwarthy complexion who bathe in it.

Animals. The foreſts of Warſovia, or Maſovia, abound with buffaloes, whoſe fleſh, when dried and powdered, is eſteemed an excellent diſh by the Poles. In all the woods of the kingdom alſo wild beaſts, as wolves, gluttons, bears, lynxes, elks, and deer are met with; and there are alſo wild horſes, aſſes, and oxen. The beſt furs in the country are obtained from a kind of wolf, ſpotted on the belly and legs, and otherwiſe reſembling an hart. The elk, which is common in moſt of the northern countries of Europe as well as Poland, has ſomething of the appearance of a deer, but is much bigger every way, and has large, broad, and rough horns, like thoſe of the wild goat. His legs are long, and the feet broad and cloven. It is ſaid to be troubled with the falling ſickneſs, by which means it is eaſily taken. This diſtemper is occaſioned by a kind of large flies which get into its ears, and thus make their way into the brain, in order to take up their lodging there through the winter. It would ſeem indeed that the brain was leſs neceſſary to this creature than to moſt others; as ſome naturaliſts aſſure us, that on diſſecting an elk, the brain has been found almoſt eaten away, and theſe pernicious animals in its head. The fleſh of the elk is eſteemed very delicious, and forms the beſt part of their feaſts. The *bobac* is ſaid to be an animal peculiar to Poland. It reſembles a Guinea-pig, but is of the beaver

kind, and burrows in the ground. They lodge together in herds of ten or twelve together, having ſeparate apartments for their proviſions, lodgings, and their dead. They retire to their holes in October, and ſeldom come out again till April. Lithuania abounds in a variety of birds, and among theſe they have eagles and vultures. There is a ſpecies of titmouſe in this country remarkable for the ſtructure of its neſt, which is long, ſhaped like a purſe, and ſuſpended from the branch of a tree. The quails of Poland are ſaid to have green legs, and to be unwholeſome eating.

Population, Inhabitants, &c. The inhabitants of Poland and Lithuania are very numerous, being computed, before the diſmemberment of the kingdom, at no fewer than 14 millions, of whom two millions were Jews; but ſince that event took place, there are computed nine millions of inhabitants, and 600,000 of them Jews. The provinces ſeized on by the Ruſſians were the moſt extenſive; thoſe by the king of Pruſſia the moſt commercial; and thoſe by the Auſtrians contained the greateſt number of inhabitants. The population of them was computed at five millions, of whom one million and an half occupied the Ruſſian provinces, two millions and an half the Auſtrian, and 860,000 the Pruſſian.

The Poles are generally fair, well ſhaped, and have a good complexion and noble appearance. They are alſo hoſpitable, honeſt, and brave; the women agreeable, modeſt, and obedient to their huſbands. They are divided into four claſſes, viz. the nobility, clergy, citizens, and peaſants. The nobility are all upon an equality, though diſtinguiſhed by the titles of Princes, Counts, and Barons. The only real difference is derived from the poſts which they enjoy; for which reaſon all the noblemen call one another brothers; and they eſteem the appellation of *Gentlemen of Poland* the moſt honourable that can be given. They value themſelves extremely upon their privileges, and are exceſſive jealous of their liberties; but, in fact, liberty in this country is confined to the nobility alone. They have the power of life and death over their wretched vaſſals, who have no reſource againſt their tyranny or oppreſſion. It was not until the reign of Caſimir that the murder of a peaſant by a nobleman was in any manner of way puniſhable; and even he made it puniſhable only by a fine, which is yet frequently eluded. If one nobleman kills another's peaſant, he is only obliged to give him another of equal value. Theſe poor creatures are born ſlaves, and have no notion of liberty. They look upon their maſters to be a kind of ſuperior beings; and having no property of their own, are indiſpenſibly obliged to cultivate the ground for the benefit of their maſter. Nevertheleſs, if they are well fed, they are happy and contented; and, ſo groveling are their ideas, that they cannot imagine how any perſon can be diſcontented if he has any thing to eat. They are often expoſed to the lawleſs brutality of their maſters, who make no ſcruple of treating their wives and daughters as they pleaſe. When any nobleman is deſirous of cultivating a piece of ground, he ſettles a peaſant with his family in a little wooden houſe, gives him a cow, &c. with as much corn as is ſufficient for his own ſubſiſtence, and to enable him to enrich his landlord. As for the nobility themſelves, they enjoy the moſt unbounded liberty; ſuch indeed as is quite inconſiſtent with the welfare of the nation at large. Beſides their unlimited power over their vaſſals, they pay no taxes, they may chuſe whom they will for their king, and when he is choſen, they are ſubject only to him, after laying upon him as many reſtrictions as they pleaſe.

pleaſe. Many of them have eſtates from five to 30 leagues in extent, and are likewiſe hereditary ſovereigns in cities, over which the king has no authority. One in particular has 4000 towns and villages under his juriſdiction, and can raiſe armies of eight or ten thouſand men. With ſuch immenſe powers the grandees of Poland may be ſtiled independent princes, rather than the ſubjects of any ſovereign. Their vaſſals, as has been obſerved, are treated like mere cattle; they call them their ſubjects, and transfer them from one to another at pleaſure. Their houſes afford an aſylum againſt proſecutions for all kinds of crimes; for none dares enter the houſe of a nobleman in queſt of a criminal, however great. They are attended by their guards both of horſe and foot; and ſometimes come to the diet with 5 or 6000 of theſe attendants; and thus the Supreme Aſſembly of the nation is often converted into a ſcene of ſlaughter and bloodſhed. The like frequently happens on the deciſion of law-ſuits betwixt theſe noblemen; for they generally think it below them to ſubmit to any determination but that of arms. In theſe caſes they raiſe armies of ſeveral thouſands on each ſide, plunder one another's cities, take caſtles, forts, &c.

The barbarous behaviour of the Poliſh nobility to their vaſſals has lately been abated in a few inſtances. In 1760 the Great Chancellor Zamoiſki enfranchiſed ſix villages in the Palatinate of Warſovia, and afterwards on all his eſtates. His example was followed by prince Staniſlaus, who enfranchiſed four villages near Warſaw, and not only ſet his peaſants at liberty, but condeſcended to direct their affairs. The event has been, not only that population has greatly increaſed, but that the revenue of the eſtates has been augmented to three times what it was before.

The Poliſh gentry are extremely vain, and fond of ſhow and ceremony. They will not travel even to a very ſmall diſtance without their horſes; and when they appear abroad, the pomp of their attendance is ridiculous. A grandee's lady appears in her coach and ſix, beſides which ſhe is often attended by an old gentleman uſher, a governante of equal antiquity, a male and female dwarf to ſupport her train, and a great number of other ſervants. At night her coach is ſurrounded by a great number of torches. They never inhabit an upper ſtory, and generally have their apartments diſjoined from each other; and their houſes are but indifferently furniſhed; ſo that, if any perſon lodges in them, he muſt carry his bedding along with him. When the grandees ſit down to dinner, they are attended by trumpets and other muſic: a number of gentlemen wait upon them, and all ſerve with the moſt profound reſpect. In this caſe the maſters and ſervants are often of equal quality; for it is nothing uncommon for the poor nobility to become ſervants to ſuch as are rich. They are, however, commonly treated with civility, and the oldeſt is permitted to eat with his maſter with his cap off: and it is uſual for him to give him part of his meat as he ſtands behind him, and let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf. Every one of theſe noble ſervants has a peaſant boy to attend him, who is maintained by the maſter of the family. Bumpers of ſtrong liquors are in uſe here as in Ruſſia, and it is with difficulty that ſtrangers can avoid pledging them. There are neither knives nor forks laid down at a Poliſh table, ſo that the gueſts muſt bring them along with them; and after dinner is ſerved, the doors of the houſe are ſhut, and not opened till the gueſts return home.

The inns of Poland are no other than ſtables built of wood, and co-

vered with ſtraw, having a chamber in one end, but ſo infeſted with flies and other vermin, that travellers generally chuſe to take up their lodging with the horſes. Travellers are always obliged to carry proviſions along with them, and are ſupplied by the lord of the village when they happen to be in want.

Dreſs. The Poles wear a veſt reaching down to the middle of the leg; having over it a kind of gown lined with fur, and girded with a ſaſh, the ſleeves fitting cloſe to their arms. They uſe wide breeches, making one piece with their ſtockings, a fur cap or bonnet, ſhirts without wriſtbands or collar, nor do they wear either neck-cloth or ſtock. They have no ſhoes, but inſtead of them wear boots of Turkey leather, with deep iron heels ſhaped like an half moon, and thin ſoles. When on horſeback they wear a ſhort cloak over all, which is commonly covered with furs on both ſides; and they have likewiſe a pole-ax or ſabre by their ſides. Some of them have 50 ſuits of clothes, all as richly ornamented as poſſible, which deſcend from father to ſon through ſeveral generations. Some of the people of beſt quality wear the ſkins of fables; others thoſe of tygers, leopards, &c. They cut the hair of their heads ſhort, and ſhave their beards, but leave large whiſkers. Charles II. attempted to introduce the Poliſh dreſs into Britain, in order to promote the conſumption of broad cloth; he even wore it two years himſelf after his reſtoration, but gave up the ſcheme by reaſon of his connections with the French. Some of the Poliſh ladies affect the Engliſh or French mode of dreſs; but the general habit is a long robe edged with fur. The habits of the peaſants conſiſt of coarſe cloth in Summer, and ſheeps ſkins with the wool inwards in Winter. They make boots of the rind of trees wrapped round their legs, with the thicker part to guard the ſoles of their feet. They are in general watchful over the conduct of their young women; and in Samogitia cauſe them wear bells, that it may be known what they are about.

Religion. The eſtabliſhed religion of Poland is the Roman Catholic; but there are likewiſe great numbers of Proteſtants both Lutherans and Calviniſts, as well as many of the Greek church; all of whom taken together are called *Diſſidents*. The whole body of nobility, however, and even the greateſt part of the nation, are bigotted to the Romiſh ſuperſtition, and even adopt all the cruelties for which it has generally been ſo remarkable. A memorable inſtance of this happened in 1724, when a general maſſacre of the Proteſtants at Thorn took place, notwithſtanding they had been tolerated by the treaty of Oliva in 1666, which was guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe. Innumerable infractions on that treaty have ſince been made; and it is remarkable that in this country Jews, Turks, and Heathens are much more encouraged than Proteſtants. The Popiſh clergy have as formerly a great ſhare of the lands and revenues of the kingdom; they are ignorant bigots, of very little ceremony with regard to their moral character; and to them it is ſaid that the peaſants owe their preſent ſtate of wretchedneſs and ſlavery. Formerly the opinions of Socinus made great progreſs in Poland, but his followers have often been grievouſly perſecuted. A tranſlation of the bible was publiſhed at Cracow in 1572; and two years after the confeſſion of Socinus made its appearance. Of late the partitioning powers have obliged the Poles to lay aſide ſomewhat of their bigotry, and to treat with more lenity thoſe who differ from them in religious matters; and the diſſidents are now allowed the exerciſe of their religion,

gion, though they are ſtill excluded from the diet, the ſenate, and permanent council: they are, however, allowed to ſit in the inferior courts, and to have ſchools and ſeminaries of learning of their own, as well as churches, but without bells.

Archbiſhoprics, Biſhoprics, and Univerſities. There are only two archbiſhoprics, viz. thoſe of Gneſna and Lemburg, throughout the kingdom. The archbiſhop of Gneſna is always a cardinal, and prince regent of the kingdom, in caſe of an interregnum. The principal biſhopric is that of Cracow, which ſee enjoys great immunities, and all the biſhops have great privileges. There are three univerſities, viz. thoſe of Cracow, Wilna, and Poſna or Poſen. The firſt has eleven colleges, with the ſuperviſorſhip of 14 grammar ſchools; and in 1778 the number of ſtudents amounted to 600. Poſen was more properly a Jeſuits college than an univerſity; and Wilna was likewiſe under the direction of that order until their ſuppreſſion; ſince which time the king has eſtabliſhed a committee of education, who appoint profeſſors, and direct their ſalaries and ſtudies.

Language. This is a dialect of the Sclavonic, very harſh and unharmonious in the pronounciation, by reaſon of the vaſt number of conſonants with which it abounds; ſome of their words having no vowels at all. The language of Lithuania and Livonia is intermixed with a number of barbarous Latin words; but the Ruſſian and German languages are ſpoken on the confines of thoſe countries.

Learning and Learned Men. Theſe have by no means been numerous in this part of the world; a ſufficient reaſon for which may be aſſigned from the almoſt continual wars in which the kingdom has been engaged. However, it has to boaſt of Copernicus the reſtorer of the true knowledge of the ſyſtem of nature, after it had been loſt for many ages. Voſſius alſo, and ſome others who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the republic of learning, have been natives of Poland. Latin is pretty generally underſtood and ſpoken, but in general not correct. The pride of the nobility indeed, and the exceſſive ſervitude of the lower claſſes, have been almoſt inſuperable bars to the progreſs of ſcience of any kind; though in this, as well as in other countries, theſe clouds are beginning to be diſpelled, and even the nobles of Poland to perceive that no rank nor ceremony are ſufficient to apologiſe for total ignorance.

Antiquities and Curioſities. There are but few remains of antiquity in Poland, as it was ſcarce ever viſited by the Romans, or even known by them. In the deſerts of Kiow are ſeveral grottos, where a number of human bodies have been preſerved for a great number of years, though neither ſo black nor hard as the Egyptian mummies; and among theſe are two princes in the habits they were accuſtomed to wear. This ſurpriſing phenomenon is ſuppoſed to be owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and ſandy. The principal artificial rarities are the gold, ſilver, and enamelled veſſels, preſented by the kings and archbiſhops of Gneſna, and preſerved in the cathedral there. Among the natural curioſities there is ſaid to be a very extraordinary one in the palatinate of Cracow, which, according to report, muſt be the moſt uſeful curioſity in the world. This is a ſpring which increaſes and decreaſes with the moon; but, what is moſt ſurpriſing, it extends the life of thoſe who drink it to an extraordinary length; the neighbouring inhabitants living commonly to 100, or even 150 years of age. It is inflammable, and burns like ſpirit of wine on the application of a torch; but the flame, probably owing

to the emiſſion of inflammable air, dances on the ſurface without heating the water. When once kindled, this flame cannot eaſily be extinguiſhed. Another very remarkable particular is, that when it is not extinguiſhed, the flame communicates itſelf to the roots of the trees of a neighbouring wood by certain ſubterraneous channels, and conſumes them Some time ago it was ſet on fire, and continued to burn for three years before it could be totally extinguiſhed. The ſalt mines are accounted a very wonderful curioſity; conſiſting of caverns many hundred yards deep, and having many intricate turnings and windings like a labyrinth. The quantity of rock ſalt they yield is immenſe; inſomuch, that the ſalt mine of Cracow is alone ſufficient to ſupply the whole world. There are four kinds of ſalt dug out of them; one is hard and clear like cryſtal; another ſofter; a third brittle and white; and a fourth leſs pungent to the taſte. Theſe were ſeized by the Auſtrians in the late partition of the kingdom, and the revenue is ſuppoſed to amount to L. 98,000 Sterling. Among the curioſities of this country we may reckon thoſe miſerable beings of the human ſpecies ſometimes found in the woods; but who are altogether irrational. Theſe indeed are a curioſity of a very diſmal kind, and a moſt ſhocking inſtance of human depravity. They are thought to have been nurſed by the wild beaſts, and to have been dropped by women when purſued by the cruel Tartars, who frequently made the moſt dreadful incurſions into this country. Some of them have been taught to articulate a few words, but none could ever be brought to underſtand what they ſaid, or to have even that degree of rationality which belongs to ſome brutes.

Principal Cities, &c. The capital of the whole kingdom is Warſaw, ſeated on the Viſtula, and ſituated almoſt in its center. It is of conſiderable magnitude, and ſaid to contain about 70,000 inhabitants; but the houſes are ill built, and moſt of them, eſpecially in the ſuburbs, are miſerable wooden hovels. However, there are many magnificent palaces, and a wooden bridge of curious workmanſhip. About half a league from the town is a plain where the nobles meet to elect the king. The city is divided into the old and new towns, the ſuburbs of Cracow, and the Brag or Prag. In 1708, a dreadful plague raged here, which carried off 30,000 people; and a fire, which laſted nine days, almoſt entirely conſumed the city. Little or no commerce is carried on here.

Cracow diſputes with Warſaw the honour of being the capital of the kingdom. It is ſituated at the conflux of the rivers Rudawa, and Viſtula. It is a very large town, but thinly inhabited, inſomuch, that it is ſcarcely ſaid to contain 16,000 inhabitants; a circumſtance perhaps owing to its having ſuffered ſo much in the wars with Sweden, and having been no fewer than nine times burnt. Great numbers of its inhabitants were alſo carried off by the plague in 1707 and 1708. The city is fortified with high brick walls, which are ſtrengthened by ſquare towers placed at proper diſtances; and has a garriſon of 600 Ruſſians. Here is a univerſity containing eleven colleges, and there are beſides 14 grammar ſchools. In the year 1549, all the ſtudents abandoned the college in one day, as ſatisfaction had not been given them for ſome of their number having been killed and wounded in a fray.

Grodno is the principal place in Lithuania, though not acounted the capital. It is in a miſerable and ruinous ſituation, with not above

7000

9000 inhabitants. About 3000 of these are Jews, and 3000 employed in manufactures of cloths, linen, and camblet, which were established by the king in 1776. There is likewise an academy of physic, where ten students are instructed in medicine, and 20 in surgery, at the king's expence.

Dantzic, the capital of Polish Prussia, is on many accounts the most remarkable place in the Polish dominions; particularly as having been formerly at the head of the Hanseatic association. It is seated on the west side of the river Vistula, about five English miles from the Baltic. It is large, well built and populous; the houses generally five stories high, and many of the streets planted with chesnut trees. Though still very much celebrated for its commerce, it seems to be somewhat fallen from its former glory. It is a republic of itself, and has a territory of about 40 miles round, which were formerly under the protection of the king of Poland. The majority of the inhabitants are Lutherans, but the Calvinists and Papists are also tolerated. The number of inhabitants has been supposed no fewer than 200,000; but it is thought they now fall short of that estimate. An evident proof of this indeed may be had from Dr. Busching's account of the bills of mortality, who informs us, that, in 1752, only 1846 persons died in the city. Its foreign commerce is very considerable; and though the ships belonging to the town are very numerous, those from other nations are more so. In 1752, no fewer than 1014 ships from foreign ports arrived at Dantzic, and 1288 Polish vessels came down the Vistula, laden with corn, for the Dantzic granaries, from whence it is exported to many different countries. Besides vast quantities of corn, naval stores and a variety of other articles are exported from this place. According to Dr. Busching, Dantzic was a large commercial city as early as the year 907. Its inhabitants have often changed their masters, and sometimes been protected by the English and Dutch, but more generally by the republic of Poland, for which they have shewn a predilection, as being less likely to rival them in trade. Dantzic enjoys very considerable privileges, among which is that of coining money. It is strongly fortified, and has on its walls 150 brass cannon, but could not stand a regular siege; by reason of its being surrounded with eminences. Elbing and Thorn enjoy very considerable privileges as well as Dantzic, the reason of which is, that, not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themselves under the protection of Poland, making these privileges part of their stipulations. The king of Prussia exempted this city, as well as Thorn, from the claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; but, notwithstanding this exemption, the late king seized the territories of Dantzic, under pretence of their having formerly been part of Polish Prussia. He then took possession of the port-duties, erected a custom-house in the harbour, and levied intolerable duties upon the goods which were delivered there; nay, at last, custom houses were erected at the very gates, and no person could pass or repass without being searched in the strictest manner. As if all this had not been sufficient, he blockaded the city by his troops in 1784; but they were withdrawn on the mediation of Russia and Poland; since which time an agreement has taken place, and it is probable that Dantzic will no longer be troubled by these monarchs. The city of Thorn was oppressed by him in like manner, and at last added to his dominions.

Commerce and Manufactures. The commerce of Poland is chiefly confined to Dantzic and other towns on the Baltic and Viſtula; but there are ſome coarſe woollen cloths manufactured in the interior parts of the country.

The loſs of Weſtern Pruſſia proved a heavy blow to the commerce of this kingdom; as thus the navigation of the Viſtula depends entirely on the king of Pruſſia, who has laid ſuch heavy duties upon the goods paſſing to Dantzic, that the trade to that town is much diminiſhed, and transferred in a great meaſure to Memel and Konigſberg.

Conſtitution and Government. This is of ſuch an intricate nature, that whole volumes have been written upon the ſubject. Though governed by a king, it in many reſpects reſembles an ariſtocracy; ſo that it has obtained the names both of a kingdom and republic. The king is elected by the nobility and clergy, and is eſteemed the head of the republic. He is choſen in the plains of Warſaw on horſeback. If the minority do not chuſe to acquieſce in the election of the ſovereign, the majority have no other reſource but to maſſacre or make war upon them. On his election he ſigns what is called the *Pacta Coventa* of the kingdom; a kind of agreement by which he engages that no foreigners ſhall be introduced, either in a civil or military department. So many limitations, however, are laid upon his prerogative, that he can be accounted nothing more than the preſident of the ſenate; an aſſembly compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of Lemburg, 15 biſhops, and 150 laymen; theſe laſt being the great officers of the ſtate, the Caſtellans and Palatines.

There are two kinds of diets in Poland, viz. an ordinary and an extraordinary one. The latter is called by the king only upon extraordinary occaſions; but the ordinary diet meets of courſe once in two or three years. One capital defect, however, attends the proceedings of theſe aſſemblies, viz. that a ſingle diſſenting voice puts an end to their deciſion.

The judges of the particular diſtricts are called *Staroſts*, and the diſtricts over which they preſide *Staroſties*; though ſome of them have the title of ſtaroſts without any juriſdiction. The Caſtellans and Palatines perform the office of lord-lieutenants and deputy lieutenants in the diſtricts called *Palatinates*. The king has the power of nominating the great ſtate officers, but cannot remove them after they are once appointed; neither are they accountable to him during the time they hold their office, but to the ſenate. Theſe officers are ten in number, viz. the two grand marſhals of Poland and Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom and of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom and of the duchy; the great treaſurer of the kingdom and of the duchy; the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the kingdom; and the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the duchy. In caſe of the king's abſence, his place is ſupplied by the archbiſhop of Gneſna, or in caſe that ſee be vacant, by the biſhop of Ploſko.

There are always ſix dietines, or provincial diets, held in different diſtricts before a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary. The latter can ſit only ſix weeks; and, previous to its meeting, the king ſends them letters of direction concerning the buſineſs to be tranſacted during the ſeſſion. The grand diet is partly compoſed of deputies from the dietines or provincial diets; and, beſides theſe, conſiſts of the king and ſenators, the deputies from the provinces and towns being 178 for Poland

land and Lithuania, and 70 for Pruſſia. It meets twice at Warſaw, and once at Grodno alternately; for the convenience of the Lithuanians, who made this one of the articles of their union with Poland.

Notwithſtanding all that we have ſaid about the conſtitution of this kingdom, however, the reader muſt not imagine that it continues always the ſame. So far from this indeed, iti s perpetually fluctuating according to the *Pacta Conventa* which every new king is obliged to ſign at his acceſſion to the throne. Notwithſtanding its imperfections, the Polith government is certainly favourable to the liberty of the ſubject; but this, when carried to exceſs, is no leſs pernicious than deſpotiſm. The negative, which every individual in the diet is allowed to put upon the voice of the whole aſſembly, muſt undoubtedly be productive of the worſt conſequences, and manifold experience has evinced it to be ſo in Poland. It is indeed a privilege which was formerly exerciſed all over Europe by the Gothic chieftains; but Mr Coxe informs us that it was not in uſe in Poland till the reign of John Caſimir. It was in the year 1652 that it firſt took place, at the time that the diet of Warſaw was deliberating upon ſome matters of great importance, and which required to be determined in the moſt ſpeedy manner. On this occaſion, one Schinſki, depute of Upita in Lithuania, ſuddenly ſtarting up, cried out, "I ſtop the proceedings;" after which he quitted the aſſembly, repaired to the chancellor, and proteſted, that, as many acts had been propoſed and carried into execution contrary to the conſtitution of the kingdom, he ſhould conſider it as an infringement of the laws if the diet continued to ſit. Such inſolence in an individual, taking upon him to diſſolve the ſupreme aſſembly of the kingdom, could never have been ſuffered, had it not been for the venal and diſcontented factions whith wich the nation was at that time diſtracted. By theſe the proteſt was ſuſtained as valid; and ever ſince that time, the privilege of every member to ſtop the proceedings of the diet has continued, which is done by the ſingle word *veto*, "I forbid."

On the late partition, a change was made in the conſtitution of Poland, by the powers concerned; but it is much to be doubted whether there is any real amendment by the change. At that time the four following important laws were enacted: 1. That the crown of Poland ſhould be always elective, and no pretence to the ſucceſſion on account of hereditary right. 2. That foreign candidates for the throne ſhall be be excluded, and no perſon choſen to the crown of Poland, excepting a native Pole of noble origin, and poſſeſſed of land in the kingdom. 3. The *liberum veto*, i. e. the pernicious privilege of the members of the diet already mentioned, and all the other enormous powers of the nobility are confirmed. 4. The eſtabliſhment of a permanent council, in which the executive power is inveſted; and into this council the equeſtrian order, hitherto excluded from the adminiſtration of affairs in the interval of diets, ſhall be admitted. Thus it is plain that the errors of the old conſtitution are confirmed, and the power of the nobles augmented, inſtead of being diminiſhed, as it ought to have been; while that of the king, which could be the only check upon them, was diminiſhed. Nothing elſe indeed could be expected from ſuch arbiters; for as they had already ſeized upon ſome of the beſt provinces of the kingdom, it is not to be ſuppoſed that they would pay much regard to the intereſt of thoſe which remained.

Revenues. Theſe are not very conſiderable. Thoſe of the former Poliſh monarchs amounted to no more than L. 140,000; however, they had no deductions for ſtate expences, nor even for the payment of their body guards. This ſum was derived principally from the revenue of the ſalt mines, which amounted, as has already been obſerved, to L. 98,000 annually. The remainder was raiſed from the ancient tolls and cuſtoms of Elbing, Dantzic, &c. the rents of Marienburg, Cracow, Dirſhaw, and ſome other places.

The diſmemberment of Poland occaſioned the loſs of one half the revenue; the king had an income of one million and an half of florins, ſettled upon him at the ſame time that the taxes were increaſed, and new-modelled in the following manner:

Total amount of the revenue 1775, including L. 323,012 ariſing from the various impoſts,	L. 443,938
Nett revenue of the king, ariſing from his royal demeſnes, ſtaroſties, and L. 47,074 out of the treaſury,	L. 194,500
Balance for ſtate expences, —	L. 249,438

Military Strength. The army of Poland is compoſed chiefly of cavalry; for the pride of the Poliſh nobility will not allow them to appear at any time but on horſeback, and their ſervants muſt attend them in the ſame manner. The kingdom of Poland can eaſily raiſe 100,000 of this kind of troops, and Lithuania 70,000. Their infantry generally come from Germany, but are not long employed in Poland, as they cannot be maintained without extraordinary taxes. The army in 1778 conſiſted only of 12,310 men in Poland, and 7465 in Lithuania cantoned into crown-lands. Ten thouſand ſoldiers are maintained by the empreſs of Ruſſia, and every garriſon is compoſed of natives and Ruſſians. Thus, not only the nobles are overawed, but the king himſelf is kept, in a kind of impriſonment, while every thing is regulated by the Ruſſian ambaſſador. The army called the *Poſpolite* is compoſed of the nobility with their followers, except the chancellor and the ſtaroſts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon particular occaſions; but they are not obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom, nor to remain above ſix weeks in arms. The moſt ſhewy body of horſe in Europe are the Poliſh huſſars; the next are the pancerns; both of which bodies are armed with coats of mail and iron caps; the reſt of the cavalry have muſkets and heavy ſcymaters. The Poliſh cavalry, however, though excellent if properly diſciplined, are of very little ſervice in the field on account of the want of order and ſubordination; even the authority of their generals and king himſelf being inſufficient to keep them in ſubjection. By proper management the Poles may be made excellent ſoldiers, of which their exploits under John Soboieſki and other princes afford abundant evidence. Soboieſki's ſucceſſors, who were natives of Saxony, choſe to overawe the native troops of Poland by thoſe of Saxony; the bad effects of which have been ſufficiently

ſufficiently felt in the reduction of the power and importance of Poland, which are now far inferior to what they were before.

Orders of Knighthood. There are only two orders of Poliſh knights. 1. That of the White Eagle, inſtituted in 1325 by Uladiſlaus. After his time it fell into diſuſe, but was revived by Auguſtus in 1705, with a view to attach ſome of the nobility to his intereſt in oppoſition to Staniſlaus, who had been ſet up by Charles XII. of Sweden. He conferred this order alſo upon the great rival of Charles, Czar Peter. 2. The Order of St Staniſlaus was inſtituted in 1765. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled red, with a medallion on the centre, having the image of St Staniſlaus enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red ribbon edged with white. The ſtar of the order is of ſilver, and in the centre is a cypher of S. A. R. (Staniſlaus Auguſtus Rex) encircled with the motto, *Premiando Incitat.*

Hiſtory. The early periods of the Poliſh hiſtory are entirely unknown, ſo that we have not even a fabulous account of them; an uncommon circumſtance, owing to the want of bards or itinerant poets, who in other countries were wont to celebrate the exploits of their heroes. The moſt diſtinct account we have of the origin of the Poles is that of Buſching, who informs us that they were the deſcendants of the *Lazi*, a people of Colchis near the banks of the Euxine Sea, and from whom the preſent inhabitants of Poland are ſometimes named *Polazi*. Theſe people began their migrations about the middle of the ſixth century, when they croſſed ſeveral rivers, and, entering Poſnania, ſettled in that country on the banks of the river Warta, while their neighbours, called the *Zechi*, took up their reſidence on the Elbe. The ſovereigns were at firſt called Dukes or Leaders, from their office of leading armies into the field; and, like other barbarous nations, their employment at firſt was only war and conqueſt. Viſcimer, the ſecond of their dukes, built the city of Wiſmar, and conquered ſeveral Daniſh princes. After his death ſuch diſputes were raiſed about a ſucceſſor, that the form of government was changed into an ariſtocracy. Twelve Palatines or Vaivodes were choſen, and the country divided into as many provinces. Theſe, as might have been expected, waged continual war againſt each other, by which means the miſeries of the people were augmented to ſuch a degree, that the dukedom was ſoon reſtored, under one *Gracus*, or *Cracus*, ſaid to be a deſcendant of the ancient Gracchi of Rome, whoſe family, according to the Poliſh hiſtorians, were baniſhed to this country. By him the city of Cracow was founded; and the ſpoils of the Franks, whom he is ſaid to have overthrown in ſome dreadful engagements, were made uſe of for the purpoſe. From Vanda his daughter, the country of Vandalia is ſaid to have taken its name. She was a moſt beautiful and accompliſhed princeſs, and demanded in marriage by a Teutonic prince named Rithogar, who threatened war in caſe of a refuſal. Vanda marched againſt him in perſon, and Rithogar, being abandoned by his army, killed himſelf in deſpair; while Vanda, who had by this time fallen in love with him, drowned herſelf in the Viſtula.

By the death of Vanda the family of Cracus became extinct; the Vaivodes were reſtored and the former conſequences enſued, ſo that the Poles were glad once more to have recourſe to their ancient ſovereigns. This honour was now conferred upon one Premiſlaus, a common ſoldier, who had contrived a ſtratagem by which the numerous forces of the Hungarians and Moravians who had invaded the country were

overthrown. After his death ſeveral competitors for the dukedom appeared; and at laſt it was agreed that he who could overcome his rivals at a horſe race ſhould have the preference. A ſtone pillar was erected near the capital, on which the enſigns of ducal dignity were laid, and he who firſt arrived at it was to enjoy them. Lechus ſecured the victory to himſelf by a ſtratagem, cauſing iron ſpikes to be ſtrewed all over the way the horſes were to run, reſerving only a path for his own. This expedient was likely to prove ſucceſsful, and the inventor was about to be choſen duke, when a peaſant, who had found out the artifice, acquainted the aſſembly with it; and Lechus, inſtead of being inveſted with the ſovereignty, was torn in pieces, and the peaſant, who had informed againſt him, preferred.

The new ſovereign appeared to be poſſeſſed of all the virtues requiſite to fill the high office to which he was raiſed. He extended his dominions on the ſide of Moravia and Bohemia, and at laſt was engaged in a war with Charlemagne, in which he is ſaid to have fallen in battle; but by others, to have ſurvived all the dangers of war, and at laſt to have died naturally in a very advanced age. His ſon was no leſs remarkable for his valour and conduct. He overthrew the Greeks and Italians, who invaded part of his dominions, and in every reſpect acted for the good of his ſubjects. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Popiel, who was likewiſe endowed with the virtues of his father and grandfather; but under his nephew Popiel II. the face of affairs was altered. The former duke, Lechus II. notwithſtanding his many good qualites, had been very much given to women; ſo that he left 20 natural children, on whom he had beſtowed the government of as many provinces; which truſt they faithfully executed, and were all living in the time of Popiel II. As ſoon as the new duke came of age, by the advice of his wife, he not only depoſed theſe governors, but cauſed them all to be poiſoned at an entertainment. A dreadful puniſhment from heaven was ſaid to be the conſequence. The dead bodies were left unburied, and from them iſſued a ſwarm of rats which followed Popiel and his wife wherever they went, and at laſt devoured them. The nation alſo was haraſſed both by civil diſcord and a foreign enemy; ſo that it ſeemed to be on the brink of deſtruction, when Piaſtus was proclaimed duke in 830.

The new duke is ſaid to have owed his election to a miracle; having formerly been of no higher ſtation than a common wheel-wright. However, he ſhewed himſelf ſo worthy of the dignity to which he was raiſed that his ſubjects loved him more than all his predeceſſors; and to this day all the natives of Poland, who have been promoted to the ducal or royal authority, are called *Piaſſes*. His ſon Ziemovitus, who ſucceeded him in 861, was the firſt who introduced a regular diſcipline among the Poliſh troops, and was at pains to make himſelf maſter of the art of war. In conſequence of this he overcame all his enemies, and not only reconquered from the Germans and Hungarians all the provinces they had ſeized, but greatly enlarged his dominions on that ſide. Miczeſlaus I. who aſcended the throne in 964 was born blind, but at the age of ſeven years began to ſee; which extraordinary circumſtance was, with ſome reaſon, accounted miraculous. In his reign Chriſtianity was introduced into Poland, on the following occaſion. Miczeſlaus having made his addreſſes to Daborwka daughter to the duke of Bohemia, the lady rejected his offer, unleſs he would ſuffer himſelf to be baptized; which propoſition was complied with on his part. Having

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been inſtructed in the principles of the Chriſtian religion, he founded the archbiſhoprics of Gneſna and Cracow; appointing St Adelbert, ſent by the pontiff to propagate Chriſtianity throughout the country, primate of the whole dukedom. His zeal was redoubled on the birth of his ſon Boleſlaus; many biſhoprics were founded, and he ordered, that, when any part of the goſpel was read, the hearers ſhould half draw their ſwords, in teſtimony of their readineſs to defend the faith. By his too great attention to the ſuperſtitions of the times, however, he ſuffered the Ruſſians to ravage his domininions: nor was all his devotion ſufficient to obtain from the Pope the title of king, though he frequently and earneſtly ſolicited it. His ſon, Boleſlaus I. had better fortune; for, having purchaſed at Prague the remains of a ſaint of ſome eminence, he conveyed them to Gneſna, where they were viſited by the emperor Otho III. Boleſlaus entertained him magnificently, and the emperor, in return, conferred the title of king upon him, which was afterwards confirmed by the Pope.

The new ſovereign finding himſelf inveſted with a title of ſo much conſequence, began to take a proportionable ſtate upon him; augmenting his body guards conſiderably, and being always attended, when he went abroad, with a numerous and ſplendid retinue. Being a man of great valour as well as prudence, he meditated an attack upon the Ruſſians in revenge of the injuries the kingdom had ſuſtained from them, but was prevented from executing his purpoſe by the breaking out of a war with the Bohemians. This aroſe principally from the envy of the duke of Bohemia, who could not brook the elevation of Boleſlaus to the regal dignity, which he had often ſolicited unſucceſsfully for himſelf; and his rancour on this account was ſtill further inflamed by his jealouſy of the connection between the emperor and Boleſlaus; the latter having married Rixa the emperor's niece. From theſe motives, without giving the ſmalleſt intimation, he ſuddenly poured into the kingdom with a vaſt army, committing every where dreadful ravages. Boleſlaus marched againſt him at the head of a conſiderable force; the Bohemians retired; and ſo great was the cowardice of their leader, that he never would fight the Poliſh army; ſuffering his capital, all his cities and forts, nay, even himſelf and family, to be taken priſoners, rather than hazard an engagement. He was treated very ſeverely by the conqueror, who put out his eyes, and threw his ſon into priſon for life. After the conqueſt of Bohemia, Boleſlaus next directed his courſe towards Moravia, which ſubmitted without a blow; and thus an opportunity was given of executing the plan he had formed againſt Ruſſia. To this he was further encouraged by the diſſentions which then prevailed in that country, where two princes, Jariſlaus and Suantepolk, contended for the throne. Boleſlaus pretended that his only deſign was to revenge the injuries ſuſtained by Suantepolk, who had been already defeated by his competitor. The Ruſſians were as unable to reſiſt him as the Bohemians had been. They behaved indeed with more valour; but, though much ſuperior in number, they were entirely defeated, and obliged to acknowledge Suantepolk for their ſovereign; but no ſooner was this done, than the ungrateful prince formed a deſign to cut him off and his whole army. This ſcheme had been ſo well concerted, that the maſſacre was begun before the king had any intelligence of it. In the utmoſt haſte therefore he aſſembled part of his army, and ſoon made the traitors

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pay dear for their perfidy. Accounting it dangerous, however, to remain in a hoſtile country ata diſtance from his own territories, he made what haſte he could into Poland. Jariſlaus, in the mean time, having collected a freſh army, purſued, and came up with him, juſt as one half of his army had croſſed the Boriſthenes. Making a deſperate attack upon the Poles when taken at this diſadvantage, victory was loug doubtful, but at laſt the ſuperior valour of the Poles carried the victory, and the Ruſſians were put to the rout with dreadful ſlaughter. Boleſlaus was too wiſe, notwithſtanding this advantage, to think of conquering ſuch an extenſive country, which he could not keep in ſubjection; and for this reaſon purſued his march into his own territories. Still, however, his martial diſpoſition continued, and he next turned his arms towards Saxony. Theſe alſo were obliged to ſubmit to the yoke; but when the whole country was ſubdued, the king thought proper to reſtore them to their liberty, and content himſelf with the booty he had acquired. As a memorial of his conqueſt, he erected two columns of iron on the banks of the river Elbe, which was fixed as the boundary of his kingdom on that ſide. Pruſſia and Pomerania were his next objects, and theſe having alſo yielded like the reſt, this great monarch ſeems to have laid aſide his inclination for conqueſt, and to have applied himſelf to the arts of peace. In this diſpoſition, however, he was not ſuffered to continue long. Jariſlaus appeared on his frontiers with the moſt numerous army that had ever been ſeen in theſe parts, and Boleſlaus was once more obliged to take the field. The uſual ſucceſs attended his arms: The Ruſſians were utterly defeated, with the loſs of many thouſands killed or taken priſoners, while the victor behaved with ſuch clemency, that the whole nation ſubmitted to his government.

Soon after this victory Boleſlaus died, in the year 1025, having raiſed the kingdom of Poland to its utmoſt extent of power. His ſucceſſor Miczeſlaus proved an indolent and debauched prince; and after his death in 1035, Rixa the queen regent proved ſuch a tyrant, that ſhe was driven out with her ſon Caſimir. A civil war enſued, in which many competitors for the throne appeared, while the Ruſſians and Bohemians, taking advantage of the prevailing troubles, invaded the kingdom in different parts. The conſequence was, that a reſolution was taken to recal Caſimir; but as he had been gone nobody knew where, for five years, they were at a loſs how to find him. At laſt, by ſending an embaſſy to his mother, who had retired to Germany, it was underſtood that the fugitive prince had taken refuge in France. Here he had firſt attended the univerſity of Paris as a ſtudent, after which, he had put on the monaſtic habit for the ſake of ſubſiſtence. His religious character now proved an obſtacle to his re eſtabliſhment on the throne; but a diſpenſation was ſoon obtained from the Pope, on condition of his making ſome conceſſions to the Holy See. One of theſe was, that the kingdom ſhould thenceforth be ſubject to the tax called Peter's Pence, and that the Poles ſhould ſhave their heads and beards, and wear white robes at feſtivals, like other profeſſors of the Catholic religion. Theſe terms being agreed to, the young prince was crowned with great ſolemnity by the primate, after having been met on the frontiers by the nobility, clergy, and all the forces in the kingdom. He applied himſelf to redreſs the diſorders in which he found the nation involved, and by his wiſe and prudent conduct, the kingdom was more benefited

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than it could have been by the moſt extenſive conqueſts. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Boleſlaus II. an enterpriſing and valiant monarch, and ſo ſucceſsful, that he had at once three unfortunate princes at his court, all of whom had been exiled by their rebellious ſubjects. Theſe were Jacomir, the ſon of Breteſlaus duke of Bohemia; Bela, brother to the king of Hungary; and Zaſlaus, duke of Kiovia, eldeſt ſon to Jariſlaus, duke of Ruſſia, and couſin to the king of Poland. Boleſlaus determined to redreſs all their grievances; but while he deliberated on the moſt proper means for this purpoſe, the duke of Bohemia invaded his territories with a great army. Boleſlaus advanced againſt him with a force much inferior; but by mere dint of ſkill, cooped up his adverſary in ſuch a manner that he was ſoon reduced to the greateſt diſtreſs. He found means, however to make his eſcape; but next year he was obliged to ſubmit to ſuch terms as Boleſlaus propoſed. In theſe the victor took care to have ſomething ſtipulated in favour of Jacomir; after which he ſet out on an expedition on account of Bela the king of Hungary's brother. A favourite opportunity indeed now offered itſelf; for the king of Hungary having offended his ſubjects by his tyrannical behaviour, a body of malecontents invited his brother to come and accept of the crown. Boleſlaus put the dethroned prince at the head of one army, and took the command of another upon himſelf, and both together entered the kindom of Hungary. The king, however, was not diſconcerted by ſuch a formidable invaſion; but being unable to cope with Boleſlaus, and deſerted by his own forces, he was taken priſoner, and treated with ſuch cruelty, that he died in a ſhort time. Theſe enterpriſes having ſucceeded ſo well with the king of Poland, he determined to make an entire conqueſt of Ruſſia, and for which the reſtoration of Zaſlaus, who had fled to him for protection, afforded a ſufficient pretence. This he eaſily accompliſhed; but, before he had time to accompliſh his grand ſcheme, a revolt in Hungary obliged him to turn his arms towards that country. Tranquillity was here reſtored by the mere terror of his name; but while the king of Poland was abſent on his expedition, his ally Zaſlaus was driven from the throne of Ruſſia, and obliged again to ſeek protection from him. On this occaſion a deſperate battle was fought, in which, though the Poles were victorious, Boleſlaus found himſelf unable to purſue his victory, and therefore took up his reſidence for ſome time in the city of Kiovia. This was looked upon to be the richeſt, as well as the moſt diſſolute city in the north; and the ſtay of Boleſlaus in it was productive of a moſt remarkable event. The ſoldiers having given themſelves up to debauchery, and remained abſent from their wives for no leſs than ſeven years, the latter, in revenge, married their ſlaves, and determined never to allow their former huſbands to return to their country. Only one ſingle woman refuſed to join in the conſpiracy; and this was the wife of count Nicholas of Demboiſin. The ſoldiers, enraged at this news of the defection, blamed the king, whom they inſtantly deſerted; leaving him almoſt alone in the heart of Ruſſia, that they might the ſooner be revenged on their perfidious wives and their gallants.

Univerſal defection of the Poliſh women, and dreadful civil war.

This produced a civil war of the moſt dreadful kind. The women appeared in the field along with their new huſbands, and eagerly ſought out their former ones, that, by their death, they might free themſelves from

from all further apprehenſions. The ſuperior ſkill of their antagoniſts, however, would in all probability have carried the day, and they would have been reduced to ſubmit, had it not been that Boleſlaus returned, with a vaſt army of Ruſſians, equally enraged againſt both parties, and determined to take a moſt ſignal vengeance on his own ſoldiers who had deſerted him, as well as on the women and their gallants. On his return therefore a more dreadful carnage than ever enſued. The women, huſbands, and gallants, all united, and fought with the fury of lions againſt the common enemy; but at laſt the fortune of the king prevailed; moſt of the rebels were killed on the field of battle, and the few who remained were tortured to death, or died in priſon.

Even this war did not fill up the meaſure of calamity and diſtreſs to which the unhappy kingdom of Poland was reduced. Wars and contentions had taken place on account of religion; and however trifling the differences between the parties might be, their animoſity againſt each other was excited to the utmoſt degree on that account. At laſt they unhappily terminated in a conteſt between the king and clergy; in which the biſhop of Cracow was murdered in the cathedral by the king himſelf, as is reported. Such a dreadful act of ſacrilege could not but call forth the utmoſt force of the Papal thunder; and this the more readily as the king had no longer his faithful and well diſciplined army who had ſerved ſo long in the wars with Hungary and Ruſſia, but at laſt periſhed in the miſerable manner already mentioned. The reigning Pope at that time was Gregory VII who fulminated the moſt dreadful anathemas againſt the king of Poland, looſed his ſubjects from their allegiance, deprived him of his titles of ſovereignty, and put the whole kingdom under an interdict. Boleſlaus in vain oppoſed his authority, and ſtrove to regain the affections of his ſubjects. The minds of the people, blinded by ſuperſtition, were hardened againſt the dictates of reaſon and common ſenſe; ſo that they imagined it more their duty to riſe in rebellion againſt their ſovereign, than to oppoſe the tyranny of the Pope. The whole kingdom became ſuch a ſcene of confuſion, that the king could no longer remain in it. He fled therefore with his ſon Mieczſlaus to Hungary; but here alſo the holy vengeance of the clergy purſued him; nor did they ceaſe perſecuting him until he came to a miſerable end. We have various accounts of his death. Some authors tell us that he was murdered by the clergy as he was hunting; others that he put an end to his own life; and one author relates that he wandered about like a ſavage for ſome time in the woods of Hungary, where he was at laſt ſet upon and devoured by dogs. The greateſt number of hiſtorians, however, inform us, that, being perſecuted by the clergy, and driven from place to place, this great monarch was at laſt obliged to become a cook in a monaſtery in Carinthia, where he ended his days.

The king degraded by the Pope, is obliged to fly, and dies in obſcurity.

The vengeance of the Pope was not yet ſatiated. The whole kingdom ſtill continued under an interdict; and he would neither ſuffer the ſon of Boleſlaus, nor any other, to aſcend the throne. Vaſt conceſſions were now required, and the whole country was impoveriſhed in order to ſatisfy the avarice of the Pontiff. At laſt, finding that no more could be got, he was contented to permit Uladiſlaus, the brother of the deceaſed monarch, to aſſume the ſovereignty with the title of *Duke;* for as the title of king

Poland reduced to a dukedom.

king had now been conferred on the duke of Bohemia, it was reſolved to gratify him at the expence of mortifying the ſovereigns of Poland, who had hitherto been ſo powerful. Uladiſlaus was obliged to accept of it upon theſe terms, and found his time completely occupied in defending himſelf againſt foreign enemies, and reducing his rebellious ſubjects, without making any attempts to regain his title. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Boleſlaus III. remarkable for the generoſity of his temper, by which he was frequently led into inconveniencies. An inſtance of this appeared in the very beginning of his reign, when he divided his dominions betwixt Sbigneus his natural brother and himſelf. The latter ſoon began to raiſe diſturbances, and attempt the conqueſt of the whole. He was defeated, however, and would eaſily have been obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion, had not the king generouſly left him in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Maſſovia. The traitor repaid this kindneſs by entering into a new conſpiracy, in which he was detected, ſeized, and baniſhed. In his exile he perſuaded the Pomeranians to take arms in his behalf; but was defeated, taken priſoner, and again baniſhed. Almoſt all the nobility ſolicited Boleſlaus to put ſuch an ungrateful traitor to death; but inſtead of this, the generous prince took him back to Poland, where he appointed him a maintenance ſuited to his rank; but even this could not prevent him from raiſing freſh diſturbances; ſo that, in ſpite of all his generoſity, the king was at laſt obliged to give orders for his execution.

For a long time Boleſlaus continued to be very ſucceſsful in his undertakings. He carried on a war with the emperor Henry IV. in which the latter was worſted; but having unfortunately entered into a war with Ruſſia, he received ſuch a dreadful defeat, that he died of grief in a few days. After his death the duchy was divided among his four children; the natural conſequences of which were a civil war. Uladiſlaus drove the other three from their dominions, and at laſt cooped them all up in one city, to which he laid cloſe ſiege. The nobility interpoſed, and uſed their utmoſt endeavours to procure a reconciliation; but they were entirely ineffectual. The young princes, driven deſperate by the view of ſuch imminent danger, ſallied out, and fell upon the duke's army with ſuch fury, that they entirely defeated it, making themſelves maſters of all his baggage and valuable effects. Uladiſlaus retired to Germany in order to ſolicit aſſiſtance; but being diſappointed, he was formally depoſed from the ſovereignty, and his brother Boleſlaus elected in his ſtead.

The new duke began his reign by granting his ungrateful brother Uladiſlaus the duchy of Sileſia; but this had no other effect than to enable him to raiſe freſh diſturbances; in which, however, he was always unſucceſsful, ſo that Poland remained for ſome years in a ſtate of tranquillity. At the ſolicitations of Chriſtina, wife to Uladiſlaus, the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa invaded Poland with ſuch a numerous army, that Boleſlaus and his brothers did not think proper to oppoſe him in the field, but contented themſelves with harraſſing his army, cutting off his convoys, and deſolating the country through which he was to march. Thus the emperor found it neceſſary to put an end to the war, and the peace was confirmed by a marriage betwixt Adelaide, the emperor's niece, and Mieczſlaus, the duke of Poſnania.

Boleſlaus having eſcaped ſo great dangers, now took it into his head to conquer Pruſſia, for no other reaſon but becauſe it was inhabit-

ed by Heathens. Having unexpectedly therefore entered the country with a very numerous army, he ſucceeded in his enterpriſe; great numbers of infidels were converted, and many churches ſet up; but no ſooner was the duke returned, than the inhabitants returned to their old religion. Boleſlaus returned with a great army; but being betrayed by ſome Pruſſians whom he had taken into his ſervice, and raiſed to poſts of honour, his army was almoſt entirely cut off; one of the princes, named Henry, was killed, and Boleſlaus and Mieczſlaus eſcaped with the utmoſt difficulty.

This diſaſter was productive of many others; for now the children of Uladiſlaus revived their claim to their father's dominions, in which they were ſupported by a number of diſcontented Poles, as well as German auxiliaries. Boleſlaus being unable to oppoſe his enemies in the field, had recourſe to negociation; and the matter being at length referred to an aſſembly of the ſtates, they were declared to be the aggreſſors, and to have kindled an unjuſt war; notwithſtanding which they were gratified with the poſſeſſion of Sileſia. After this Boleſlaus applied himſelf to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, and died in peace in the year 1174. After his death his brother Mieczſlaus aſcended the throne; but proving a tyrant, he was depoſed, and his young brother Caſimir, who, at the time of the original partition, had been entirely neglected, being an infant in the cradle, was now raiſed to the throne. He proved a moſt excellent prince, and even endeavoured to reſcue the peaſants from the ſlavery in which they were held by the nobility. This, however, was an undertaking of ſo much conſequence, that the king durſt not venture upon it by his own authority, even though ſupported by the clergy. It proved, however, leſs difficult than had been imagined to make the nobility relinquiſh certain privileges, which were certainly inconſiſtent with the natural rights of mankind. The archbiſhop of Gneſna thundered out anathemas againſt thoſe who ſhould attempt to recover the unjuſt privileges; and to make the affair ſtill more certain, the acts of the diet were tranſmitted to Rome, where they were confirmed by the Pope. Some diſcontented nobility, however, attempted to reſtore Mieczſlaus; but their attempts were defeated, and Caſimir behaved with unparalleled generoſity both to his brother, and the rebels who had taken part with him.

With the reign of this prince ended the proſperity of Poland. He left one ſon an infant, named Lechus, who being raiſed to the ſovereignty, Mieczſlaus took advantage of his minority to renew his pretentions to the throne. This occaſioned a civil war, in which the uſurper prevailed; but ſoon falling a victim to his intemperance, Lechus was reſtored in 1206. His misfortunes, however, did not properly commence till this reſtoration; for now the Tartars poured their numberleſs forces into the country, and reduced it to ſuch a ſituation, that the whole was ready to ſubmit to the government of theſe barbarians. But when this was the caſe, the Tartars ſuddenly retired without any apparent cauſe, leaving behind them a famine and peſtilence, the uſual conſequence of the devaſtations of war. In the midſt of theſe calamities, Lechus was murdered by ſome of his own ſubjects; a civil war enſued after his death; the Tartars made a ſecond irruption, advancing almoſt to the capital itſelf, and laying waſte the whole country with fire and ſword. Here they were attacked, and defeated with great ſlaughter by the palatine of Cracow, with only an handful of men.

Next

Next year, however, they returned and committed ſuch barbarities, as our modern maſſacres can ſcarce give an idea of. Whole provinces were deſolated, and not a ſingle inhabitant left alive. As they were returning to their own country, the palatine of Cracow fell upon them a ſecond time, but not with the ſame ſucceſs as before. After an obſtinate engagement he was defeated, and the whole kingdom laid open to the ravages of theſe barbarians. The nobility fled into Hungary, and the peaſants took refuge among rocks and inacceſſible foreſts. Cracow was taken, pillaged, and burnt; after which the Tartars, penetrating into Sileſia, Moravia, and Hungary, deſtroyed every thing with fire and ſword. The king of Hungary gave battle to theſe dreadful invaders, but was defeated with great ſlaughter, and had the mortification to ſee 100,000 of his people periſh by fire and ſword, and the capital of his dominions laid in aſhes. The barbarians fixed their head quarters on the frontiers of this country, and ſpread their devaſtations all around with ſuch ſucceſs and rapidity, as threatened the deſtruction of the empire of Germany, as well as all the neighbouring countries. In this dreadful ſituation of affairs, Boleſlaus, ſurnamed *the Chaſte*, was raiſed to the throne; but this, inſtead of alleviating the miſeries of the people, augmented them by occaſioning a civil war. Conrade, the brother of Lechus, and uncle to Boleſlaus, diſputed the pretenſions of the latter to the ſovereignty, and drove him into Hungary. His own pride and tyranny, however, ſo diſcontented his ſubjects, that Boleſlaus was recalled; on which occaſion the Teutonic knights are ſaid to have been firſt called into Poland to aſſiſt Conrade. The conſequence was, that Boleſlaus at laſt obtained the victory, and appears to have enjoyed the ſovereignty in peace till his death, which happened in 1279. He was ſucceeded by his adopted ſon Lechus, under whom all the troubles with which the kingdom had been ſo long diſtreſſed, revived in full vigour. An attack from the united forces of the Ruſſians, Tartars, and Lithuanians was the firſt diſaſter; and tho' theſe were happily overcome, the victory was ſo dearly bought, and the power of Lechus ſo much weakened, that a civil war enſued. Lechus was driven into Hungary, and the whole country, excepting only the ſingle city of Cracow, ſubmitted to an uſurper. Cloſe ſiege was laid to the place, and it was ſoon reduced to great ſtraits; ſo that it would undoubtedly have been obliged to ſubmit alſo, had not Lechus ſuddenly appeared to its relief with a great army of Hungarians. The rebels were now defeated and diſperſed; but ſcarce was Lechus reinſtated in the throne, when the country was invaded a ſecond time by the Ruſſians, Lithuanians, and Tartars. Their troops were now attended by allies ſcarce more barbarous than themſelves, viz. a number of great dogs, whom they had trained to fly upon their adverſaries, and devour them. Notwithſtanding this, however, they were at laſt entirely defeated, and Lechus remained undiſturbed by them as long as he lived.

Premiſlaus aſſumes the title of king

After the death of Lechus, a new civil war enſued, which was terminated in 1296, by the election of Premiſlaus, who aſſumed the title of king. In 1300 the throne was ſeized upon by Uladiſlaus Locticus, who was ſoon after driven out, but reſtored in 1305. The firſt tranſaction of his reign was a war with the Teutonic knights, who, during the late diſturbances, had uſurped the ſovereignty of Pomerania and ſome other places.

These had been ſettled in the territory of Culm, by Conrade, duke of Maſſovia, as has been mentioned under the hiſtory of Pruſſia; but ſoon extended their dominion over the neighbouring provinces, and had even got poſſeſſion of the city of Dantzic, where they maſſacred a number of Pomeranian gentlemen in cold blood; which terrified the inhabitants of the country to ſuch a degree, that they ſubmitted without a ſtroke. The Pope himſelf commanded theſe warriors to put a ſtop to their conqueſts, but they paid no regard to his injunctions, and ſuffered themſelves to be excommunicated rather than part with them. On this Uladiſlaus marched without delay into the territories of the marquis of Brandenburg, becauſe he had pretended to ſell the eſtates of the Teutonic knights, when he had no right to them himſelf. He next entered the territory of Culm, where he defeated the united forces of the marquis, the knights, and the duke of Maſſovia, after a deſperate and bloody engagement, but returned to Poland without making any uſe of his victory. Having recruited his army indeed, he ravaged their country, but might eaſily have driven them out of all their territories, or at leaſt reduced them ſo low, that it would never have been in their power to have raiſed any more diſturbances; but, ſuffering himſelf to be cajoled by their pretences, he concluded a treaty with them under the mediation of the kings of Hungary and Bohemia. In a few months he had reaſon to be convinced of their perfidy; for they not only refuſed to evacuate Pomerania, as had been ſtipulated by the treaty, but endeavoured to extend their uſurpations; for which purpoſe they had raiſed a very conſiderable army. Uladiſlaus, provoked at this treachery, gave them battle a ſecond time, with ſuch ſucceſs, that 4000 knights, and 30,000 of their auxiliaries were left dead on the ſpot, or taken priſoners. Still, however, the king had compaſſion on the remainder of the order, and ſatisfied himſelf with obtaining the poſſeſſion of the countries which had been the occaſion of the war.

Uladiſlaus was ſucceeded by his ſon Caſimir the Great, who poſſeſſed many admirable qualities beſides that of valour. In one ſingle campaign he conquered the province of Ruſſia Nigra; over-ran the duchy of Maſſovia with incredible rapidity, and annexed it as a province to his kingdom; after which he applied himſelf entirely to his domeſtic affairs. In 1370 he was ſucceeded by his nephew Lewis king of Hungary; but his adminiſtration was diſturbed by conteſts with his ſubjects. He had never, indeed been a favourite with the Poles; who, from the beginning had looked upon him as a foreign prince, and he had made the difference much worſe by putting Hungarian garriſons into moſt of the cities, and filling all places of truſt and honour with them. Theſe diſcontents at laſt produced a kind of civil war, in which the king prevailed; but inſtead of freeing the nation from the grievances of the Hungarian garriſons, he augmented them much more, and had even the intereſt to get the marquis of Brandenburg, a prince diſagreeable to the whole nation, appointed to the ſucceſſion. On the death of Lewis, however, this was ſet aſide, and Hedwiga, the daughter of Caſimir the Great, appointed in his place. This lady married Jagello duke of Lithuania, who was now converted to Chriſtianity, and baptized by the name of Uladiſlaus; and by this marriage the duchy of Lithuania, as well as Samogitia, and Ruſſia Nigra, became annexed to the crown of Poland. This vaſt acceſſion of power greatly alarmed the Teutonic

knights

knights, who inſtantly endeavoured to promote a revolution in favour of Andrew the brother of Uladiſlaus. They were, however, eaſily defeated; but ſoon after returned with Vitowda the king's couſin, who had been driven out of Lithuania by the tyranny of the governor Skirgello. By this traitor part the capital of of that duchy was burnt, and 14,000 people periſhed in the flames; the other part of the town was ſo vigorouſly defended, that the enemy were obliged to content themſelves with deſolating the adjacent country. Next year Vitowda renewed his attempts on the capital, but with the ſame ill ſucceſs, though he made himſelf maſter of ſome places in the neighbourhood. As ſoon as an opportunity offered, however, he came to an agreement with the king, who beſtowed upon him the government of Lithuania. Here he ſoon engaged in wars with the Tartars in the neighbourhood, whom he always overcame, and tranſported whole hordes of that barbarous people into the duchy, where, to this day, they form a colony diſtinct from the other inhabitants in manners and dreſs. At laſt he engaged in a war with Tamerlane the Great, ſoon after his victory over Bajazet the Turkiſh ſultan. With 40,000 men, he encountered an army of 400,000 of theſe barbarians, and though ſurrounded on all ſides, and in the utmoſt danger of being cut in pieces, he broke through the enemy with prodigious valour and great effuſion of blood, both on his own ſide and that of the Tartars. By this deſperate effort, however, he preſerved himſelf from a total defeat, after having killed a number of the enemy equal to that of all his own army. On his return he found that country overrun by the Teutonic knights, who committed every where dreadful ravages. Them he attacked and defeated; making an irruption immediately into Livonia, to puniſh the inhabitants of that country for the aſſiſtance they had given to the Teutonic Order. This was ſucceeded by a long war with Pruſſia, in which it became neceſſary for Uladiſlaus himſelf to take the field. Theſe knights had now got poſſeſſion of Samogitia, Maſſovia, Culm, Sileſia, and Pomerania; ſo that Uladiſlaus reſolved to puniſh them before they became too powerful. Having aſſembled a great army, compoſed of ſeveral different nations, therefore, he entered their country with a full reſolution to take ample vengeance for the injuries they had done to his kingdom; but in the engagement which enſued, he was deſerted by all his allies, ſo that victory was not obtained without the moſt deſperate efforts on the part of the Poles. The overthrow given to the knights, however, was terrible; no fewer than 40,000 being killed on the ſpot, and 30,000 taken priſoners. Uladiſlaus might have eaſily deſtroyed the whole order, but generouſly granted them tolerable terms of peace. In a ſhort time, however, new hoſtilities commenced, and Uladiſlaus determined to ſpare them no more. The knights were driven to ſuch extremities, that they had come to the reſolution of burying themſelves in the ruins of their capital, when by the valour and good conduct of their grand maſter *Plawen*, they obtained advantageous terms of peace, at a time when it was univerſally expected the whole order would have been exterminated.

This monarch was ſucceeded by his ſon Uladiſlaus VI. under whom the kingdom was invaded by the Tartars, and afterwards involved in a war with the Turks, who threatened to break into Hungary. On this occaſion it was thought neceſſary to aſſiſt the Hungarians, it being impoſſible to know where the ſtorm was next to fall, if Hungary ſhould be conquered. By the victories of John Hunniades, vaivode of Tranſylvania,

ſylvania, however, the Turks were obliged to ſue for peace, and Uladiſlaus was elected king of Hungary. A treaty was concluded, by which the Turks promiſed to relinquiſh their deſigns upon Hungary, and to give up all their conqueſts in Raſcia and Servia. But when all this was ſealed by mutual oaths, Uladiſlaus was perſuaded by the Pope's legate to break it, in hopes of humbling the power of the Turks; in conſequence of which he was abſolved by the Pope from the oath he had juſt taken. The conſequence of this perfidy was, that a new war enſued, in which Uladiſlaus was defeated and killed at the battle of Varna; the greateſt part of his army being cut in pieces.

By this dreadful blow the ſpirits of the Poliſh nation were depreſſed for a conſiderable time. Under the reign of Caſimir III. they were revived by the entire reduction of the Teutonic knights, whoſe grand maſter was allowed a ſeat in the Poliſh diet, with other privileges, on condition of his doing homage for Pruſſia, and taking an oath of fidelity to the king and republic. The hoſpodar of Moldavia was alſo taken under the protection of Poland, it being ſuppoſed that this country would prove a convenient barrier againſt the power of the Turks. An oath of fidelity, however, was exacted of him and his ſubjects, and an annual tribute required. Soon after this the barons of Bohemia thought proper to beſtow the crown upon Uladiſlaus eldeſt ſon of Caſimir; who, taking advantage of the troubles at that time exiſting in Hungary, found means to add that country alſo to his dominions; but though his power was thus apparently augmented, the felicity of his people was diminiſhed. So many foreign expeditions had exhauſted the treaſury; the peaſants were oppreſſed by taxes; the higher orders greatly diminiſhed in number by the continual wars; agriculture neglected; the country almoſt depopulated; and Caſimir died before any proper remedy could be applied. In this prince's reign it is ſaid that the diet firſt aſſumed to themſelves the legiſlative power; all laws before that time having been enacted by the king and ſenate. To this Caſimir alſo is attributed the general knowledge of the Latin tongue prevalent throughout the kingdom of Poland. Before his time the clergy only are ſaid to have underſtood this language; as a proof of which it is alledged, that at an interview between this prince and the king of Sweden at Dantzic, his Poliſh Majeſty was obliged to accept of the aſſiſtance of a monk to interpret between him and the Swediſh prince. Aſhamed of this ignorance ſhewn by himſelf and court, Caſimir publiſhed an edict by which the diligent ſtudy of the Latin tongue was enjoined, and which is almoſt univerſally ſpoken throughout the country, as has already been obſerved.

The affairs of Poland continued to decline after the reign of Caſimir, till they were retrieved by Sigiſmund I. a prince juſtly celebrated for his heroic exploits. He aſcended the throne in 1507, and after having quelled ſome internal diſturbances, ſet about making the kingdom as formidable as it had formerly been. Having quelled a rebellion which broke out in Lithuania, he next turned his arms againſt the Moldavians and Walachians, whom he drove out of Ruſſia Nigra, and then defeated the Ruſſians themſelves with the loſs of 30,000 of their men. His next exploit was againſt the Teutonic knights, who had elected the marquis of Brandenburg grand maſter, and even invaded the Poliſh territories. Him he alſo entirely defeated, and obliged to reſign his office of grand maſter; depriving the order at the ſame time of the beſt part of their dominions, and putting it out of their power to diſturb the tranquillity of the kingdom any more. By this time, however, the Houſe of Auſtria

ſtria in Germany had become very powerful, and envied the greatneſs of the Poliſh monarch, taking every opportunity of ſtirring up enemies to the kingdom whenever they had it in their power. Sigiſmund repelled all their attacks with incredible vigour, and always came off victorious, inſomuch, that in his time we may reckon Poland to have been at its utmoſt height of glory. In his own perſon he poſſeſſed the kingdom of Poland, the great duchies of Lithuania, Smolenſkoe, and Saveria, beſides vaſt territories lying beyond the Euxine and Baltic; while his nephew, Lewis, poſſeſſed thoſe of Hungary, Bohemia, and Sileſia. In 1548, however, this glory received a ſudden check, by the defeat and death of Lewis king of Hungary, in a great battle with Solyman the Turkiſh emperor. The daughter of this prince married Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, by which alliance theſe kingdoms were for ever connected with the hereditary dominions of the Auſtrian family. This was a heavy ſtroke for Sigiſmund, then in his 84th year; and the grief of it is ſuppoſed to have haſtened his death, though, by the courſe of nature he could not have lived much longer. He died with the character of the completeſt general, the wiſeſt ſtateſman, the beſt prince, and the ſtrongeſt man in the north. Of his perſonal ſtrength indeed there are ſome inſtances related almoſt incredible. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Sigiſmund Auguſtus, likewiſe a brave and prudent prince. In his time violent wars were carrying on throughout Germany on the ſubject of religion; but Sigiſmund was too wiſe to intermiddle in theſe diſputes; nor would he admit into his territories any who were taxed with holding heterodox opinions; but at the ſame time, he never perſecuted, nor did he employ any other means for the preſervation of the ſtate than thoſe of a regular and well conducted policy. Nor was he by any means deficient in valour and military ſkill, as appeared in a conteſt with the Ruſſians. Theſe enemies had made an irruption into Livonia, being encouraged by the diſputes which ſubſiſted between the Teutonic knights and the archbiſhop of Riga, who was Sigiſmund's couſin. The province was at that time divided between the knights and the prelate; and, under pretence of aſſiſting the former, the Ruſſians had ſeized great part of the dominions of the latter. The archbiſhop had recourſe to the king of Poland; who took the field in his behalf with an army of 100,000 men. The knights terrified at ſuch an armament, deſerted their allies, and put themſelves alſo under the protection of Sigiſmund. The Ruſſian monarch, however, having along with him an army of 300,000, imagined himſelf not only able to reduce Livonia, but even Poland itſelf. Having therefore met with ſome checks on the ſide of Livonia, he poured his numerous forces by different quarters into the kingdom of Poland, and for ſome time carried every thing before him. The Poles, however, ſoon recovered their ſpirits, and not only defeated their enemies in every encounter, but invaded Ruſſia in their turn. The mutual devaſtations now committed by both parties ſoon made them weary of the war, and a truce was concluded for three years, during which time Sigiſmund died; and with him was extinguiſhed the houſe of Jagello, which had governed Poland for near 200 years. On his death the kingdom became a ſcene of the baſeſt depravity and corruption. A great number of intrigues were ſet on foot at the courts of Vienna, France, Saxony, Sweden, and Brandenburg, each of them wiſhing to ſee a prince of their own nation upon the throne of Poland; and the members of the diet, conſulting only their

their own immediate intereſt, were ready on all occaſions to vote with the higheſt bidder. Religious diſputes alſo now began to take place, but fortunately with no bad effect; as a law was enacted, that no difference in religious matters ſhould make any contention among the people; and it was enacted, that in all time coming, the king ſhould ſwear to cultivate the internal tranquility of the kingdom, without any diſtinction of perſons whatever. In the mean time, the duke of Anjou was repreſented in ſuch a favourable light to the nation by one Craſoſki, who had viſited France, and ſeen him there, that he was choſen king. He was received by them with the greateſt marks of affection, but was ſcarce ſeated on the throne of Poland, when by the death of Charles IX. he became heir to that of France. On this he took a reſolution of deſerting Poland altogether, and quitting the palace ſecretly in the night time, ſet out to take poſſeſſion of the crown of France, which he looked upon to be preferable to that of Poland. The Poles, irritated at this behaviour, declared the throne vacant; and, after ſome confuſion, Stephen Batori, prince of Tranſylvania was elected king, having married the princeſs Anne, ſiſter to the late king Sigiſmund; a condition which was alſo to have been impoſed upon the duke of Anjou.

No oppoſition was made to the elevation of Batori, except by the inhabitants of Dantzic, who adhered to the intereſt of Maximilian, emperor of Germany, Batori's rival. As they continued obſtinate, there was a neceſſity for making war upon them, which was done with ſuch ſucceſs, that they were at laſt obliged to ſubmit. Before this happened, however, the Ruſſians, ever ready to take advantage of the diſtractions of Poland, had commenced a war, in which they behaved with ſuch cruelty, that the inhabitants of Wender choſe rather to bury themſelves in the ruins of their town, than to ſubmit to ſuch a dreadful enemy. The ſcene of theſe barbarities was Livonia; which unhappy province was at this time likewiſe invaded by the Swedes. Batori, having called to his aſſiſtance Chriſtopher prince of Tranſylvania, laid ſiege to Polocz, a city of importance on the river Duina; but the Ruſſians no ſooner heard of the approach of the Poliſh army, than they put all the citizens to death, thinking by this barbarity to intimidate their enemies; but ſo far was this from being attended with the wiſhed for effect, that they advanced to the aſſault with irreſiſtible fury, and the Ruſſians were obliged to ſurrender at diſcretion; and it reflects no little honour upon Batori, that, though he had it in his power to retaliate the cruelties of the Ruſſians upon themſelves, he would not ſuffer his ſoldiers to do ſo. Indeed the barbarity of theſe wretches was ſuch as might have ſeemed almoſt to authoriſe any revenge whatever. Great numbers of Germans were found in the city, expiring under the moſt ſevere tortures, and others dead of pains which could no longer be ſupported. Several of the officers had been dipped in cauldrons of boiling oil, with a cord drawn under the ſkin of the belly, which faſtened their hands behind. In this ſituation their eyes had been torn from their ſockets, or burnt out with red hot irons, and their faces otherwiſe terribly mangled; and the dreadful treatment they had met with appeared plainly on the bodies of thoſe who were dead. The Poliſh ſoldiers were exaſperated almoſt to madneſs at this ſhocking ſpectacle; and all the authority of their king was ſcarce ſufficient to prevent them from maſſacring all the Ruſſians at once.

After the reduction of Polocz, Batori continued the war with ſuch ſucceſs, that the czar was ſoon obliged to ſue for peace. A treaty was likewiſe concluded with Sweden; and the king being at liberty from theſe bloody and deſtructive wars, had now ſome leiſure to apply to the internal affairs of the kingdom. He now regulated the Poliſh cavalry in ſuch a manner, that they became formidable to the Turks and other barbarous nations in the neighbourhood; and on this occaſion he introduced the military eſtabliſhment called the *Quartienne*, viz. a body of cavalry, in ſupporting whom a fourth part of the revenue is employed. Batori ſent this body to the frontiers of Tartary, to check the incurſions of thoſe barbarians; and thus the vaſt tract of country called the Ukraine, which had hitherto been a mere deſart, ſoon became full of flouriſhing towns and villages. The laſt memorable action of Batori was his civilizing the Coſſacs, and attaching them to Poland. To accompliſh this end, he firſt gained their affections by his liberality, preſenting them with a city called Techtemaravia, ſituated on the Boriſthenes, and which they made the reſidence of their chieftains, and the magazine of all their proviſions. Having accuſtomed them to military diſcipline, and given them proper officers and arms, he next introduced into their country all the manufactures at that time known in Poland; and among the arts then introduced, that moſt uſeful one of agriculture was not omitted; ſo that, by his exertions, the Coſſacs, from a ſet of uſeleſs and barbarous banditti, became a regular colony, and capable of performing great ſervices to the ſtate. But, while the king was employed in this uſeful work, the Swedes broke the convention they had formerly entered into, and were on the point of ſending a garriſon to Riga; to which indeed the king himſelf had given occaſion, by attempting to impoſe Popery upon the inhabitants of this city. The tranſaction, however, gave ſuch offence to Batori, that he determined to take a moſt exemplary vengeance upon the inhabitants, but died before he could accompliſh his purpoſe.

After the death of Batori, the uſual troubles and commotions began to take place in this unhappy kingdom. Four candidates for the throne appeared, among whom were Maximilian of the Houſe of Auſtria, and Sigiſmund prince of Sweden; who managed matters ſo well, that, in 1587, both of them were choſen. The conſequence of this was a civil war, in which Sigiſmund had the good fortune to defeat and take his rival priſoner. He engaged in a ſucceſsful war with the Tartars, and likewiſe fell heir to the kingdom of Sweden. He found it impoſſible, however, to retain both crowns; and preferring that of Poland, was formally depoſed by the Swedes. After this he engaged in a war with Ruſſia, in which he was ſo ſucceſsful as to conquer the whole country, and place a prince of his own chuſing upon the throne; but the new ſovereign was ſoon driven out by his ſubjects, and the Ruſſians not only recovered their liberty, but began to make encroachments upon Poland. The vigour of the Poles now ſeemed to decreaſe; and they were no longer capable of making theſe great efforts which they had formerly done. They were alſo farther depreſſed by their unfortunate war with Guſtavus Adolphus of Sweden, in which they were obliged to ſubmit to the terms impoſed by that hero. After the death of Sigiſmund, however, which happened in 1629, their affairs ſeemed to revive; the Ruſſians were defeated, and the Swedes forced to reſtore ſome of their conqueſts; but this was

more than balanced by a terrible revolt of the Coſſacs, who proved victorious in ſeveral engagements. A peace was concluded with theſe dangerous enemies by John Caſimir; but the war was quickly renewed, and, while the kingdom was in this diſtracted ſtate, the Ruſſians took the opportunity of ravaging and pillaging Lithuania. To add to all theſe misfortunes, a new war with Sweden enſued, in which the Poles were obliged to ſubmit to the ſuperior fortune of their adverſaries; and the kingdom was totally ſubdued by Charles Guſtavus, ſucceſſor to the celebrated Chriſtina. Fortunately, however, a rupture ſoon took place between Sweden and Denmark, by which the Swedes were obliged to evacuate Poland in 1657; but this was followed by civil wars, and conteſts with Ruſſia, by which the king was ſo much vexed, that he reſigned the crown in 1668. His death was attended with the uſual confuſion, which laſted two years, at the end of which one Wieſnouiſki, a man in a very mean ſituation, but collaterally deſcended from the Houſe of Jagello, was elected king. He reigned only three years; but during that time the celebrated general John Soboieſki gave the Turks ſuch a dreadful overthrow, as entirely broke their power for ſome time; no more than 15,000 out of an army of 300,000 men having the good luck to make their eſcape. Had this blow been properly purſued, the moſt advantageous terms might undoubtedly have been obtained from the ſultan; but as the Poles were bound by the laws of their country only to ſtay a certain time in the field, they refuſed to purſue the victory, and left the king to procure the beſt terms of peace he could. Before the news of this victory was known at Cracow, however, the king died, and Poland once more became a prey to faction and civil diſſenſion; but at laſt the fortune of John Soboieſki prevailed, and he was elected king in 1674. He proved a moſt magnanimous prince, retrieving entirely the affairs of Poland by his valour and good conduct. He waged war a long time with the Turks, whom he always defeated, and effectually checked their further progreſs to the weſtward; but of theſe wars a more particular account will be given in the hiſtory of Turky. All his great qualities, however, were not ſufficient to make his people happy, and the ſpirit of diſaffection and diſcontent had now ſo thoroughly pervaded the nation, that nothing could ſatisfy them. The latter part of Soboieſki's reign, therefore, was involved in troubles; and after his death, in 1696, the nation ſunk in ſuch a manner as never to retrieve itſelf again. The moſt violent conteſts took place about the ſucceſſion, and the crown was in a manner offered to ſale, at the very time that the country was ravaged by the Tartars. The prince of Conti appeared to be the moſt liberal bidder, and therefore ſeemed to ſtand the faireſt chance for the crown; but while he thought himſelf almoſt ſure of it, he was diſappointed by the queen-dowager, who had formed a party in favour of her ſon Alexander Soboieſki. For this ſhe was expelled the capital, and obliged to take refuge in Dantzic; but in the meantime Frederic Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, having declared himſelf a candidate, and being proclaimed by the biſhop of Cujavia, took poſſeſſion of Cracow with a Saxon army, and, in 1697, was elected king. As ſeveral eſſential ceremonies, however, were wanting in this election, it was with the utmoſt difficulty that he could ſecure his ſubjects in obedience to him; and having unfortunately engaged in a league with Ruſſia and Denmark againſt Charles XII. of Sweden, he was by him not only defeated and deprived of his territories, but obliged to ſign a

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formal renunciation of the crown, in favour of Staniſlaus, and even to congratulate his rival on his acceſſion to the throne. After the battle of Poltowa, however, the fortune of Auguſtus again prevailed; he was replaced on the throne by Czar Peter, and after a long and unhappy reign, died in 1733. He had got his natural ſon, Maurice, afterwards the celebrated count Saxe, choſen duke of Courland, but was not able to keep him in poſſeſſion of that dignity againſt the powerful intereſt of Ruſſia, and the jealouſy of the Poles themſelves. The ſettling of the ſucceſſion upon his ſon Auguſtus was likewiſe a favourite object with this monarch; but by this means a war was occaſioned with France, in order to obtain the re-election of Staniſlaus, formerly expelled by Auguſtus, and who was father-in law to the French monarch. This was actually accompliſhed; but Auguſtus broke all the meaſures of that party, by entering the country with a powerful army, compoſed of Saxons and Ruſſians, by whom Staniſlaus was compelled to retreat to Dantzic, from whence he eſcaped with great difficulty to France. The new king, though a mild and moderate prince, could never gain the affections of his ſubjects; and he experienced great misfortunes from the war in which he engaged with the king of Pruſſia: So great was the indifference of the Poles towards him, that they barely afforded him ſhelter when driven from his electoral dominions by the laſt mentioned monarch. He died on the 5th of October 1763; and was ſucceeded by a Poliſh grandee, named count Poniatowſki, who had the misfortune to ſee his kingdom not only made a ſcene of bloodſhed and deſolation, but deprived of ſome of its beſt provinces, and reduced in ſuch a manner as to have not the moſt diſtant reſemblance of its once great and flouriſhing ſtate. This extraordinary revolution was brought about in the following manner.

During the interregnum which took place betwixt the death of Auguſtus and the election of Poniatowſki, (who had aſſumed the title of Staniſlaus Auguſtus after his election to the throne), a decree had been made by the convocation-diet, regarding the diſſidents, as they were called, or diſſenters from the Popiſh religion. By this they were in a great meaſure prohibited from the exerciſe of their religion, at the ſame time that they were totally excluded from all places of truſt under government. Several of the European powers interpoſed in their behalf; and among the reſt Ruſſia, Great Britain, Pruſſia, and Denmark made remonſtrances to the diet, but to no purpoſe; for the decree was confirmed by the coronation-diet held after the king's election. In October 1766, declarations from the courts above mentioned were preſented to the king, in which it was required, that the diſſidents ſhould be eſtabliſhed in their civil rights and privileges, and the peaceable enjoyment of their modes of worſhip confirmed to them by the laws of the kingdom, which had been enjoyed for two centuries; and it was alledged that theſe privileges had been confirmed by the treaty of Oliva, guaranteed by all the northern powers, and could not be altered but by the conſent of all the contracting parties. A violent diſpute enſued, but at laſt the matter was referred to the biſhops and ſenators; and upon their report, the diet came to a reſolution, that they would fully maintain the diſſidents in all the rights and privileges to which they were entitled by the laws of their country, particularly by the conſtitutions of the year 171[illegible], &c. and by treaties; and that as to the complaints with regard to the exerciſe of their religion, the college of archbiſhops and biſhops

would endeavour to remove them in a conſiſtency with juſtice and neighbourly love. The court of Ruſſia, however, determined to enforce their reaſoning by the moſt effectual arguments, and a ſmall body of troops were ordered to march to the neighbourhood of the capital of Poland. The reſolution of the diet did not give ſatisfaction to the diſſidents, who dated the beginning of their ſufferings from the year 1717. They looked upon referring their cauſe to the archbiſhops and biſhops to be a moſt unreaſonable meaſure, as from that very body had originated all the evils of which they now complained. In a ſhort time they found themſelves ſupported by 15,000 Ruſſian troops; and, gathering confidence in proportion to the view they had of foreign ſuccour, two confederacies were formed, one at Thorn, and another at Sluck; the former being ſigned by the diſſidents of Poland, and the other by thoſe of Lithuania. The profeſſed deſign of theſe confederacies was to aſſociate in defence of their ancient privileges, and the free exerciſe of their religion; though they ſtill profeſſed the greateſt loyalty to the king, propoſed to ſend a deputation to him, and even invited the Catholic party to join them in maintaining the fundamental laws of the kingdom. By virtue of public treaties they claimed the protection of thoſe powers by which their privileges had been guaranteed, viz. the empreſs of Ruſſia, the kings of Great Britain, Sweden, Denmark, and Pruſſia. Laſtly, they proteſted that they had no intention of acting againſt the Catholics; that they only wanted the free exerciſe of their own religion, and the eſtabliſhment of their ancient privileges.

Theſe confederacies, when once begun, ſoon increaſed very conſiderably. The cities of Thorn, Elbing, and Dantzic, acceded to them on the 10th of April, as did alſo the duke and nobility of Courland on the 15th of May. The empreſs of Ruſſia, and king of Pruſſia continued to manifeſt their favour and protection, and the Ruſſian troops in Poland were augmented to 30,000. A great number of other confederacies were formed in different parts of the kingdom; but as they complained only of the mal-adminiſtration of civil affairs, without taking any notice of religion, they had the title of *Confederacies of Malcontents*. All of them publiſhed manifeſtoes, in which they agreed in conſidering the Ruſſian troops as the defenders of the Poliſh liberties, and recommended them to the inhabitants accordingly. Having at laſt united together, their aſſociation received the name of the General Confederacy; and prince Radzivil, who had married the king's ſiſter, but been deprived of his eſtate and honours in 1764, was reſtored, and made marſhal.

This great aſſociation is ſaid to have conſiſted of 72,000 noblemen and gentlemen of Poland, and took ſuch meaſures as appeared moſt proper for augmenting and ſtrengthening their party ſtill farther. They now demanded ſome terms for themſelves in a ſtile of authority, while the Catholic party took the ſame precautions in their own behalf. In 1767, the confederacies of the diſſidents united themſelves with thoſe of the malcontents, and prince Radzivil, who expreſſed great friendſhip for the former, propoſed that a commiſſion ſhould be appointed with full power to confer with prince Repnin the Ruſſian ambaſſador, concerning the affairs of the diſſidents. This was violently oppoſed by the biſhops of Cracow, Kiow, and ſome other prelates; the conſequence of which was, that they were all carried off by Ruſſian detachments, under pretence of having been wanting in the reſpect due to the empreſs.

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This violence probably was the reaſon of prince Radzivil's plan being adopted, and ſeveral regulations being inſtituted in favour of the diſſidents; but the exceſſive bigotry of the oppoſite party prevented the reſtoration of tranquillity at this time. A new aſſociation, afterwards called the *Confederacy of Bar*, was formed with a deſign to aboliſh the inſtitutions made in favour of the diſſidents; and Podolia was choſen for the ſeat of their operations, becauſe they thought the Ruſſians could not act againſt them there without giving umbrage to the Turks. A great number of other confederacies of the ſame nature were entered into throughout the kingdom, the people being every where inflamed by the clergy; and at laſt, the whole nation was incited to a general revolt, by one prince Martin Lubomirſki, who pretended to have concluded an alliance with the Ottoman Porte, and to be aſſured of its protection. Thus hoſtilities commenced between the empires of Ruſſia and Turky, which were not terminated without vaſt effuſion of blood on both ſides.

The unhappy kingdom of Poland now ſuffered the moſt grievous calamities. Many ſkirmiſhes had already taken place between the Ruſſians and confederates in Podolia, in one of which, the latter had been purſued into the Turkiſh territories, though this action was diſavowed by the Ruſſian court. In 1768 the Greek peaſants in the diſtrict of Kiow took up arms, on account, as they pretended, of having been threatened with death by the oppoſite party. The Ruſſians, however, oppoſed theſe inſurgents, and took many of them priſoners, but the remainder took refuge in the country of the Tartars, in conjunction with whom they ſoon entered the kingdom a ſecond time, and committed every where the moſt horrid maſſacres. At laſt they were defeated by the Poliſh troops, and ſome other confederacies met with a ſevere chaſtiſement; but in a ſhort time the kingdom was invaded by the Cham of the Crim Tartars, who behaved with no leſs cruelty than the other enemies already mentioned. By theſe barbarities the Poliſh Coſſacs, to the number of 30,000 men, were induced to join the Ruſſians; and frequent ſkirmiſhes now took place betwixt the contending parties, in which the confederates were almoſt always defeated, but took care to revenge themſelves by committing the moſt horrid cruelties on the diſſidents wherever they could find them. The confederates of Bar naturally joined the Turks, but were ſo ill uſed by them, that in 1770, a great number of them joined the Ruſſians, who offered their protection upon very moderate terms. Theſe calamities were productive of the uſual conſequence of war, viz. a neglect of agriculture and famine; and this encouraged a number of deſperadoes to aſſociate under the name of Confederates, who were ſtill worſe than the others. The exceſſes committed by ſuch a number of contending parties, at laſt reduced great part of the country to a mere deſert; moſt of the inhabitants having been exterminated, or carried off to ſtock the diſtant plantations of Ruſſia, from whence they could never return.

The affairs of the confederates had hitherto worn ſuch a bad aſpect, that they ſeemed to be almoſt totally ſuppreſſed before the end of the year 1770; but next year they unexpectedly revived under the encouragement, as was ſuppoſed, of the court of France. Many officers of that nation indeed now joined their troops, and introduced ſo much diſcipline among them, that they not only made a more vigorous reſiſtance than before, but even ſometimes overcame their adverſaries. A deſign

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was alſo formed by the confederates of aſſaſſinating the king on account of his ſuppoſed attachment to the diſſidents. This was accompliſhed on the third of September 1771, about nine in the evening. His majeſty happened then to be returning to his palace at Warſaw, unattended by his uſual guards, when the coach was ſuddenly attacked at the corner of the ſtreet by ſix men on horſeback, among whom was one Koczinſki, an officer among the confederates. They fired their carbines and piſtols into the carriage, ſeveral of the balls of which went through his great coat, and one of them killed an heyduc who endeavoured to defend his maſter. All the others who attended him conſulted their ſafety by flight. The king himſelf had opened the door of his carriage with a deſign to make his eſcape, and had even alighted, but they ſeized him by the hair of the head, crying out with horrible execrations, that "his hour was come." To make their prophecy good in this reſpect, one of them diſcharged his piſtol ſo near, that his majeſty felt the heat of the flaſh. Still, however, his life was preſerved; and though one of the aſſaſſins ſtruck him over the head with a ſabre, in ſuch a manner as to cut him to the bone, he ſurvived the wound. They next laid hold of him by the collar, and mounting on horſeback, dragged him along the ſtreets of Warſaw for near 500 yards with their horſes at full gallop. This they accompliſhed without being diſcovered, by reaſon of the darkneſs of the night, and the want of lamps in the ſtreets of Warſaw. A Ruſſian centinel indeed did hail them, but they anſwered in Ruſſian, ſo that he took them for a party of his own countrymen. By the extreme violence of this treatment, his majeſty almoſt loſt the power of reſpiration, and would undoubtedly have expired in a ſhort time, had not the aſſaſſins at laſt mounted him on horſeback. When they came to the ditch which bounds the city, they forced him to leap his horſe over it; in doing which the animal broke its leg. On this they mounted him on another, and began to rifle him. Lukawſki, one of their chiefs, tore off the enſigns of the Order of the Black Eagle, which had been beſtowed by the king of Pruſſia, with the diamond croſs hanging to it. His motives for this are ſuppoſed to have been that he might give his companions an undoubted proof that the king was in his poſſeſſion. His majeſty requeſted the conſpirators to leave his handkerchief, to which they conſented, and his tablets alſo eſcaped their rapacity. After having plundered him of what they thought moſt proper, they all left him except ſeven, among whom was the chief named Koczinſki, or Koſinſki already mentioned. All of them were now ignorant of the way; and as the horſes could not keep their legs, they obliged his majeſty to follow them on foot with only one ſhoe, the other being loſt in the dirt. Thus they continued to wander in the neighbourhood of Warſaw, without getting to any diſtance from the town; but at laſt they mounted the king again on horſeback, and were taking the road to a village called *Burakow*, which his majeſty warned them to avoid, as there were a party of Ruſſians ſtationed there, who would not fail to attempt his reſcue. This intimation was given from a juſt apprehenſion, that, on the ſight of a Ruſſian guard, they would inſtantly put him to death, and attempt to make their own eſcape; and by this intelligence he ſeemed even to have gained their confidence in ſome degree. Finding himſelf, however, incapable of bearing the painful ſituation in which he was held, he requeſted from them a boot and another horſe, which they complied with; and, at the deſire of Koſinſki, gave him a cap, all which

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at that time were moſt valuable preſents. At laſt, after immenſe toil, and wandering through lands almoſt impaſſable, they reached the wood of Bielany, only a league diſtant from Warſaw. It appears, however, that Koſinſki had really been the inſtrument of preſerving the king's life; for the reſt of the conſpirators frequently aſked him whether or not it was time to put him to death, but he conſtantly replied in the negative. They advanced with the king into the wood, when they were alarmed by the appearance of a Ruſſian detachment, which induced four of the aſſaſſins to fly, while the other three, of whom Koſinſki was one, obliged the king to purſue his journey. In about a quarter of an hour they were challenged by a ſecond Ruſſian guard, on which two of the others fled alſo, leaving Koſinſki along with the king. The aſſaſſin ſtill obliged him to walk on, though he was almoſt quite exhauſted with fatigue, and thus they proceeded till they arrived at the convent of Bielany. Here Koſinſki appeared ſo much confuſed and agitated, that the king deſired him to allow him to enter the convent, while Koſinſki himſelf might make his eſcape; but the latter replied, that he had ſworn never to allow him to eſcape. At laſt they came to Mariemont, a ſmall palace belonging to the Houſe of Saxony, and here Koſinſki ſhewed ſome marks of ſatisfaction at knowing where he was; on which the king prevailed upon him at laſt to allow him to ſit down. Here his majeſty reaſoned with his conductor on the atrocity of his crime, and the impiety of taking an oath to ſuch a purpoſe, or of keeping it after it was made; by which he at laſt prevailed. Koſinſki threw himſelf at his feet, implored his pardon, and promiſed to defend him againſt every adverſary, while the king aſſured him of all the protection in his power. The only aſylum in the neighbourhood was a mill, where having with ſome difficulty gained admittance, the king wrote a note to his general Coccei, informing him of his ſafety, and deſiring his immediate attendance. This was inſtantly complied with, and the king conveyed back to his palace about five in the morning, where he ſoon recovered of all the wounds and bruiſes he had ſuſtained. Lukawſki and Strawenſki, two of the chief conſpirators, were both beheaded; but at the earneſt interceſſion of the king, the tortures uſually inflicted upon ſuch criminals were remitted. Pulaſki was outlawed, but having found means to eſcape to America, he entered into the ſervice of the coloniſts, when he was killed in the attack made by Deſtaing on Savannah. Koſinſki was ſent out of Poland by the king, and was allowed a penſion for life.

For ſome time the affairs of Poland continued in the ſame diſtracted ſtate; the country reduced to a deſart by foreign enemies and domeſtic diſſenſions, while the three ſurrounding powers formed a deſign of profiting by theſe troubles, and each ſeizing upon that part of the Poliſh territories that lay next themſelves. The ſituation of Poland indeed is ſuch, that its ſecurity could only be derived from the jealouſy of theſe powers, each of whom might be ſuppoſed intereſted in preventing an increaſe of their neighbours territories. An union contrary to this principle now took place, and Pruſſia, Auſtria, and Ruſſia combined in one general league to deprive the Poles of part of their territories; and ſuch was the ſecrecy with which their deſigns were conducted, that they were ſcarce known, or even ſuſpected, before they were put in execution. The partition treaty was firſt projected by the king of Pruſſia, who had long been deſirous of poſſeſſing that part of the dominions of Poland

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known by the name of Poliſh Pruſſia; not only on account of its fertility and aptneſs for commerce, but by reaſon of its ſituation, which enabled the Poles to cut off the communication between Eaſtern Pruſſia and his German dominions, the fatal conſequences of which he had already experienced. He purſued his plan, however, with the utmoſt caution; and though he advanced his troops in 1769 into this country, in ſuch a manner as to become entirely maſter of it, he gave out that the reaſon of his doing ſo was to prevent the infection of the plague, which then raged in the country, from ſpreading beyond the lines he had drawn. The ſame year, however, he communicated his deſign to the emperor at an interview he had with him at Nieſs in Sileſia. This was readily approved of, and the emperor found the execution of his part of the project the more eaſy, as he had already ſupported the confederates; and thus the Poles imagined that his army were advancing to their aſſiſtance, when in fact they had quite other deſigns. The plague furniſhed him with the ſame pretence as the king of Pruſſia. The difficulty now was how to obtain the concurrence of the empreſs of Ruſſia; and his Pruſſian Majeſty is ſaid to have ſpoken nothing on the ſubject to her, until he found that ſhe was ſo involved in the war with Turky that ſhe could not extricate herſelf. He then diſpatched his brother to Peterſburg, where he ſuggeſted, that the emperor was forming an alliance with Turky, which would be in the higheſt degree dangerous; though the friendſhip of the Houſe of Auſtria might undoubtedly be purchaſed by acceding to the partition. This was an argument which ſhe could not at preſent withſtand, and ſhe gave her conſent the more readily as it was now impoſſible to prevent it; the only thing ſhe could do was to ſtipulate for a conſiderable ſhare of the Poliſh dominions for herſelf.

The affairs of the confederates were now totally ruined, and their troops every where routed and diſperſed. Indeed the armies of theſe great powers, Auſtria, Ruſſia, and Pruſſia, had ſo completely taken poſſeſſion of the kingdom, that had they reſolved to keep poſſeſſion of the whole, inſtead of a part of it only, there could not have been any reſiſtance made. Such was their impenetrable ſecrecy, however, that nothing tranſpired till the month of September 1772, when the treaty was formally notified to the king and ſenate aſſembled at Warſaw by the Imperial ambaſſador. The partitioning powers urged pleas in favour of their uſurpations, the king and ſenate replied, and appealed to the States by which the Poliſh dominions had been guaranteed. Theſe powers remonſtrated, but all to no purpoſe; for the others would ſubmit to neither reaſon nor argument. They demanded a diet to confirm the partition; and, as all reſiſtance was vain, the king convoked one by a ſummons in the following terms: "Since there are no hopes from any quarter, and any farther reſiſtance would only tend to draw down the moſt dreadful calamities upon the remainder of the dominions which are left to the republic, the diet is convened for the 19th of April 1773, according to the will of the three courts: nevertheleſs, in order to avoid all cauſe of reproach, the king, with the advice of the ſenate, again appeals to the guarantees of the treaty of Oliva."

Notwithſtanding the deplorable ſituation of the kingdom at this time, it was not without the utmoſt difficulty that the diet would conſent to the ratification of this ſcandalous treaty. The king was threatened with depoſition and impriſonment; the members of the diet were ſolicited

by bribes, or menaced in the moſt ſevere manner; the marſhal was conſtantly attended by a guard of Ruſſians, until at laſt the cauſe was gained in the upper houſe by a majority of ſix, and in the lower by a majority of only one.

Even this acquiſition was not ſufficient to ſatisfy the avarice of the Auſtrian and Pruſſian monarchs. Though their limits were exactly aſcertained by the partition treaty, they continued to enlarge their territories by encroaching ſtill farther upon the remainder of the Poliſh dominions, till they were ſtopped by the remonſtrances of the empreſs. The diſtrict claimed by the Auſtrians in their manifeſto is ſaid to be "all that tract of land lying on the right ſide of the Viſtula from Sileſia above Sandomir to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoiſc, and Rubieſſow, to the Bog. From the Bog the limits are carried along the frontiers of Red Ruſſia to Zabras upon the borders of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a ſtraight line to the Nieper, where it receives the rivulet Podhorts, taking in a ſmall ſlip of Podolia, and laſtly, along the boundaries ſeparating Podolia from Moldavia." On attempting to ſettle theſe boundaries, however, an unexpected difficulty occurred, for no rivulet could be found which had the name of Podhorts; for which reaſon the frontiers were advanced ſtill more eaſtwards, and the river *Sebravce*, or *Sbrytz*, taken for the boundary, after having changed its name to that of Podhorts. The Ruſſian claims comprehend Poliſh Livonia, with that part of the palatinate of Polotſk to the eaſt of the river Dwina, the palatinates of Vitopſk, Miciſlaw, and two portions of the palatinate of Minſk; all ſituated in White Ruſſia, excepting Poliſh Livonia, and including a full third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the governments of Polotſk and Molrileſ, as the Auſtrian part is into the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria, which they pretend to have formerly exiſted, but of which they can ſhew no documents, far leſs any claims of ſuperiority over them. The encroachments of the reſpective powers upon this kingdom, however, will be beſt underſtood from comparing this account with the map.

Since this partition the kingdom of Poland has afforded no tranſaction of any conſequence; nor is it probable that it can ever recover itſelf until the privileges of the nobility are abridged. We ſhall conclude our hiſtory, therefore, with obſerving that it afforded an aſylum to the unfortunate traveller corporal Ledyard, when hurried out of the Ruſſian dominions in ſuch an unaccountable manner, as is mentioned in the hiſtory of that country; the cauſe of which, however, is ſaid to have been that he was accuſed of having ſpoken too freely of the government. We have the following account of the adventures of that extraordinary traveller, in a letter from a gentleman in Konigſberg in Poliſh Pruſſia to his friend in Edinburgh.

Konigſberg, 20th May 1789.

"DEAR SIR,

"As you wiſh to be informed of the particulars of my meeting with that extraordinary character Mr Ledyard, I ſhall relate the matter to you as circumſtantially as I can recollect.

"It was in the Spring of laſt year that I received a card from him, dated at an inn in this town, importing that he was juſt arrived from his travels in Ruſſia, and wanted much to ſee me. I went accordingly to the inn, where I found him dreſſed in a very groteſque habit, having a

ſort of cloſe great coat about him made of the ſkin of a rein-deer, with the fur outſide, a fur cap on his head, and boots of the ſame materials. He told me not to be ſurpriſed at his dreſs, for that I ſaw in him a ſtate priſoner baniſhed from Ruſſia in a moſt unaccountable manner, without his having the ſatisfaction of knowing what his crime was. He then related to me that he had been a great traveller, was round the world with captain Cook on the laſt voyage where that commander loſt his life: that on his return to London he had been employed by the Royal Society to make diſcoveries in Siberia, and particularly to attempt ſailing down one of the rivers of that country into the Frozen Ocean, and trace the coaſt from thence round Tſchutſky Noſs to Kamtſtſkatka. That he had accordingly ſet out with this intention, and travelled through Sweden round the gulph of Bothnia to Peterſburg; from thence he had got as far as Jakutſk in Siberia, where he had met with Mr Beeling an Engliſh gentleman, who was employed on a ſimilar purpoſe: that one day while at dinner with this gentleman, a party of ſoldiers entered the room, and told him he was arreſted by command of the empreſs, and that he muſt immediately get into the carriage prepared for him, in order to his being tranſported out of the empire. He enquired the reaſon of this unexpected order, but could get no ſatisfaction, farther than being told it was the command of the empreſs: he then deſired leave to go to his lodgings, which were at ſome diſtance, to pack up his cloaths and other neceſſaries, but this he ſaid was denied him; and accordingly he was put into the carriage with only ſuch cloaths as he had on, and hurried from ſtation to ſtation, being only allowed barely time to eat and to reſt. That at each principal place through which he paſſed, he endeavoured to prevail on the commanding officer to tell him the reaſon of his being arreſted, but always received the ſame anſwer, that it was the empreſs's commands, and they had nothing farther to do with it. In this manner he was conveyed from Jakutſk to the Poliſh border, a diſtance of more than two thouſand miles; and when he came fairly over the Poliſh boundary, he was told that now he was at liberty to ſhift for himſelf. He found himſelf now in a very ſtrange ſituation, in a remote corner of a ſtrange country, amongſt an uncultivated people, of whoſe language he did not underſtand a word; however, with the few Ruſſian words he had picked up, he made his ſituation known to ſome who ſpoke that language, who directed him to bend his courſe for Konigſberg, and procured him a conveyance in the ſledges of the country people from one village to another, the expence whereof was trifling, and which he was enabled to defray by means of a few rubles which he luckily had in his pocket. After a journey of about a fortnight, he reached this town, and enquired of the landlord of the inn if any Britiſh merchants reſided here, who having given him my name, he had wrote me the card above mentioned, and that his chief purpoſe was to deſire I would procure him a paſſage in a ſhip to London, which I readily agreed to; but he then added that he was in great want of money, and that if I would advance him a few guineas, he would give me his bill on Sir Joſeph Banks, preſident of the Royal Society.

"Though the ſtrange appearance of the man, and his as ſtrange ſtory, had made me very diffident of his veracity, yet conſidering him in the light of a countryman in diſtreſs, I thought that in ſuch peculiar circumſtances my aſſiſtance, though at a ſmall expence, ſhould not be withheld; and accordingly aſſured him he ſhould have what he wanted

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to bear his expences; and as his ſituation as a ſtranger at the inn muſt be very uncomfortable, I deſired him to come to my houſe, where he could find people to converſe with. He made apologies about his cloaths, but at laſt accepted the invitation. He ſoon got into high ſpirits, and was very entertaining; he related to us all the circumſtances of captain Cook's death, and ſaid he ſailed in that ſhip in quality of captain of marines. I happened to have a copy of that voyage by me, where a liſt of the officers is printed, and on turning up to this found the captain of marines mentioned by the name of Mollinaux Phillips. I aſked him the reaſon of this diſagreement in the names, and he gave me for anſwer, that he had gone by the name of Phillips on board, but that his real name was Ledyard. I had ſome doubts of him before, but now I thought I had reaſon to be convinced he was an impoſtor, though in this I afterwards found I partly did him injuſtice I however took no notice to him of the opinion I entertained, and he paſſed ſeveral days at Konigſberg very agreeably, and often remarked that he never had experienced ſo great a change as his tranſition from amidſt the rude and uncivilized nations of Ruſſia and Poland, to his then ſituation amongſt a people of polite manners and humane diſpoſition. He took his departure in a ſhip for London; and in the courſe of poſt, contrary to my expectation, I heard that the bill he had given me on Sir Joſeph Banks was regularly paid; and in a little time after, on reading the life of captain Cook, wherein Mr Ledyard was mentioned by name, I found the whole myſtery explained; for the truth was, he had acted as corporal of marines in this ſhip, and the poor fellow had thought that this rank might not gain him ſufficient reſpectability in gentlemen's families, and had therefore taken the character of captain, which I thought a very excuſable deceit. He wrote me a very complaiſant letter from London at ſame time, and acquainted me of his being again engaged on another expedition to explore the inland parts of Africa. I was very ſorry to read in the news-papers afterwards that he had died in the proſecution of the buſineſs at Grand Cairo."

SWITZERLAND.

Situation and Extent, &c. THIS country, the ſeat of the ancient Helvetij, is ſituated between 45 and 48 degrees of north latitude, and between ſix and 11 of eaſt longitude, extending upwards of 250 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. On the north it has Alſace and Suabia in Germany; on the ſouth it has Italy; on the weſt it is bounded by France; and on the eaſt it has the lake of Conſtance, with the countries of Tyrol and Trent.

Diviſions. The preſent inhabitants of Switzerland are divided into 13 tribes or cantons, each of which have a particular diſtrict allotted to them, and ſome, according to certain circumſtances, are of more

importance in the ſtate than others. In point of precedency in this reſpect they ſtand as follows: 1. Zurich. 2. Berne. 3. Lucerne. 4. Uri. 5. Suiſſe. 6. Underwalden. 7. Zug. 8. Glares. 9. Baſil. 10. Friburg. 11. Soleure. 12. Schaffhauſen. 13. Appenzel. The various diviſions are ſhewn in the following Table.

Switzerland	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calviniſts,	Berne	2347	112	88	Berne
	Zurich	728	35	34	Zurich
	Schaffhauſen	150	24	9	Schaffauſe
	Baſil	250	22	91	Basil 47-40 N. Lat. 7-50 E. Lon.
Papiſts,	Lucerne	460	34	36	Lucern
	Underwalden	280	24	61	Stantz
	Uri	613	50	21	Altorff
	Suiſſe	260	28	11	Suiſſe
	Friburg	370	25	20	Fribourg
	Zug	110	19	1	Zug
	Soleure	254	31	24	Soleure, or Soluthurn
Calviniſts and Papiſts,	Appenzel	276	24	21	Appenzel
	Glares	260	24	18	Glares
The ſubjects of the Switzers, Calvaniſts, and Papiſts.	Baden				Baden
	Bremegarten	226	30	12	Bremegarten
	Mellingen				Mellingen
	Rheinthal	44	20	5	Rheineck
	Thurgau	120	20	11	Frowanfield
	Lugano	860	54	30	Lugano
	Locarno				Locarno
	Mendris				Mendris
	Maggia				Maggia
Allies of the Switzers.					
Calviniſts.	Griſons	2260	110	62	Coire
Subjects of the Griſons, Calviniſts, & Papiſts,	Chiavannia, Bormia, and Valteline	473 361	43 28	34 19	Chiavannia Sondria
Calviniſts,	Tockenburg	178	26	8	Liechtenſteg
	Geneva	169	12	11	Geneva
	Neufchatel	320	33	20	Neufchatel
Papiſts,	Valais	1288	89	30	Sion
	Baſle	279	10	16	Deſperg
	St. Gall	145	16	10	St. Gall
					Mulhauſen, in Alſace, is alſo united to them.
	Total— 12,000				

Air, Climate, Soil, &c. The vicinity of the Alps to Switzerland renders the air exceſſively cold and piercing in the winter time; many of thoſe mountains being covered with ſnow all the year round. They make alſo ſuch a diverſity of ſeaſons as is altogether inconceivable by us, by reaſon of the poſition of the different parts of the country with regard to the mountains; for where the heat is kept off by being long involved in their extenſive ſhadows, the harveſt will be proportionably late, and ſo on the contrary. Hence, among theſe mountains, it frequently happens, that while they are ſowing in one part, they will be reaping in another at no great diſtance. Theſe vaſt mountains likewiſe produce frequent rains and tempeſts; but, in the ſummer months, nothing can be more delightful than the proſpect of the valleys, which are extremely rich and fruitful. Even thoſe parts of the country which ſeem leſs adapted by nature for yielding any produce, have been rendered fertile by the induſtry of the inhabitants; and travellers are often ſurpriſed to perceive that vines have been planted on the bare rocks, and the declivities of mountains marked with the plough, where the aſcent is ſo ſteep that a horſe could ſcarce be ſuppoſed to walk. In ſome places, however, the country is dreary and barren, filled with inacceſſible rocks, ſome of which are covered with perpetual ſnow and ice. Vaſt pieces of the latter frequently tumble down into the valleys between theſe frozen mountains, which in the winter time appear covered with ſmooth ice, like as many little frozen lakes, and ſometimes ruin the fertile country below. There is indeed, throughout the whole country, a very ſtriking contraſt between the higheſt degree of cultivation and that of abſolute wildneſs and barrenneſs, by which means Switzerland abounds more with romantic and picturesque proſpects than perhaps any other country in the world. At any rate, the climate is ſo uncertain, that the produce muſt neceſſarily be precarious, and hence there are public granaries erected to ſupply the frequent deficiency of crops.

Lakes and Rivers. Switzerland abounds with lakes, the moſt remarkable of which are thoſe of Conſtance, Geneva, Thun, Lucerne, Brien, Biel, and Zurich. The principal rivers are the Rhine, Aar, Reuſs, Rhone, Oglio, and Teſin. There are likewiſe vaſt abundance of ſtreams, which pour down the ſides of the mountains, frequently producing fine cataracts of a larger or ſmaller ſize according to their quantity. The water in general is excellent.

Metals and Minerals. The metal moſt commonly met with in Switzerland is iron; the minerals are ſulphur and rock cryſtal.

Animals and Vegetables. This country produces plenty of black cattle and ſheep, alſo game, fiſh and fowl of various kinds. Here are alſo met with the bouquetin and chamois, both of which are remarkable for the ſwiftneſs and agility with which they ſkip among the mountains. The fleſh of the chamois is accounted excellent, and the uſes of its ſkin are well known. The blood of both theſe creatures is accounted medicinal by the inhabitants, and frequently uſed in pleuriſies, though the beſt phyſicians are now agreed that it is totally inſignificant. A ſpecies of hares are likewiſe ſaid to be found among the Alps, which become white in the winter time, ſo that they can ſcarcely be diſtinguiſhed from the ſnow. This, however, has lately been denied by ſome naturaliſts; the white hare is ſaid to be a diſtinct ſpecies, and ſeldom to quit his place of reſidence among the rocks. Here are ſome foxes of yellow

and

and white colours; which ſometimes come down into the valleys in the winter time in queſt of food.

Population, Inhabitants, &c. The lateſt accounts make the number of inhabitants in Switzerland amount to about two millions. They are generally accounted brave, and for a long time were ſo remarkable for military ſkill, that a victory over them was looked upon to be very extraordinary. They reſemble the ancient Romans in their attachment to liberty, and like them alſo they are as well ſkilled in agriculture as in the art of war. In general, alſo, they are very intelligent; and the common people appear to have a much larger ſhare of knowledge than thoſe of the ſame rank in other countries. They are hardy and induſtrious, with an agreeable ſimplicity and frankneſs; and they have beſides an air of content and ſatisfaction which cannot but be highly pleaſing to every one who viſits them. In ſhort, the Swiſs are remarkable for almoſt every good quality; and ſhew by their cleanlineſs, content, and politeneſs the moſt ſtriking contraſt betwixt thoſe who enjoy the bleſſings of liberty, and ſuch as are under a deſpotic government. In ſome parts of the country every cottage has its field of excellent paſture ground, ſometimes ornamented with trees and well ſupplied with water. In moſt places they are ſubjected to ſumptuary laws; ſilk, laces, and ſome other articles of luxury being prohibited, and even the headdreſſes of the ladies regulated. Games of hazard are prohibited, and even dancing, except upon particular occaſions. Some kinds of games are allowed, but the party who loſes above ſix florins, amounting to about nine ſhillings of our money, is liable to be fined to a conſiderable amount. Their diverſions are generally of the martial kind, and they are much addicted to reading, by which their underſtandings are very much improved.

Religion. Though the reformation was begun in this country by Zuinglius almoſt as early as in Germany by Luther, it never ſpread over the whole country. Many of the inhabitants, and ſome whole cantons, profeſs the Catholic religion; but though theſe differences in opinion formerly produced commotions in the ſtate, they have now entirely ſubſided. The Proteſtants generally profeſs the opinions of Calvin, at leaſt with reſpect to church government; but in other reſpects they are far from being Calviniſtical. It may indeed be remarked that they are generally too much bigotted to their religious opinions; and, however much they may be attached to civil liberty, are far leſs liberal minded in matters of religion.

Language. German is the moſt prevalent language in Switzerland; but thoſe who live in the neighbourhood of France ſpeak a corrupted kind of French, while thoſe adjacent to Italy ſpeak a kind of baſtard Italian or Latin.

Learning and Learned Men. Though we have already mentioned the general character of the Swiſs as attached to improvement and learning, we do not find that many eminent authors have exiſted among them. Calvin is one of the moſt eminent in this country, and celebrated not only on account of his theological writings, but as the legiſlator of Geneva; his inſtitutions being ſtill held in high eſtimation by the moſt learned people of the country. Rouſſeau too, whoſe name has been ſo famous in modern times, was a native of Geneva. His writings are ſaid to have an energy which it was thought impoſſible to give the French language; and in that country he is admired as a poet, though the

the Engliſh eſteem him only as a proſe writer. M. Bonnet, Meſſ. de Sauſſure, and M. de Luc, all of whoſe names are memorable in the annals of modern literature, are natives of this country.

Univerſities. Theſe are Baſil, Berne, Lauſanne, and Zurich, of which the firſt is moſt remarkable. It was founded in 1459, and has a fine phyſic garden, containing many curious plants. There is a library containing ſome valuable manuſcripts; a muſeum well furniſhed with natural and artificial curioſities, and a great number of medals and paintings.

Antiquities and Curioſities. In this country many monuments of antiquity have been diſcovered near the Baths of Baden, which Tacitus makes mention of as known in his time. There are many fine buildings of the religious kind, particularly a college of Jeſuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuſcripts and other antique curioſities. The ruins of a wall built by Julius Cæſar are ſtill extant, and extend 18 miles in length, from mount Jura to a lake named Leman. There are many hermitages in this country of a very ſurpriſing conſtruction, particularly one about two miles from Friburg, which was the work of a ſingle hermit, who employed himſelf in it for 25 years. It is all hewn out of the ſolid rock, and contains a parlour 28 paces long, a chapel, a cabinet, kitchen, cellar, and other apartments, with a chimney carried quite up through the rock. The parlour is no leſs than 20 feet in height; and there is an altar, with benches, &c. all cut in the ſame manner. The hermit who accompliſhed this ſingular and extraordinary work was alive in 1707.

Among the natural curioſities of Switzerland, we may reckon the multitude of ſurpriſingly wild and romantic proſpects which are to be met with throughout every part of it. At a paſs called *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is dug through a rock fifty feet in thickneſs, having an arch over it 26 feet high, and 25 broad. Among the mountains of this country are found many marcaſites and falſe diamonds, which are juſtly eſteemed curioſities. There is a curious ſpring near the place called *Roſiniere*, which riſes in a natural baſon of 12 feet ſquare; it is of unfathomable depth, and the ſurface of its waters as clear as cryſtal; and yet notwithſtanding its vaſt depth, a column of water, nearly as thick as a man's thigh, ſpouts up above the ſurface to the height of a foot or more, which indicates an immenſe force upon it at the bottom to overcome the reſiſtance of ſuch a vaſt height of water. This ſpout is chiefly obſervable after a great ſhower of rain; ſo that the fountain itſelf is probably owing to ſome ſubterraneous lake not far below the ſurface of ſome of the neighbouring eminences to which the rain water has ready acceſs.

Principal Cities, &c. The moſt noted of theſe is the city of Berne, which ſtands almoſt in the middle of the canton of the ſame name, on a peninſula, three ſides of which are ſurrounded by the river Aar. It is long, but not broad in proportion; the houſes are built moſtly of white free ſtone with piazzas. Here is a fine arſenal, reckoned the beſt in Switzerland; and there are public granaries, which are always well ſtocked with corn. The country, for a league around, is very agreeable, and the river is navigable from Berne down to the Rhine, but not back again, by reaſon of the rapidity of its ſtream, and the number of ſunk rocks it contains. This city and canton are ſuppoſed to contain

one

one-third of the inhabitants of the Helvetic body; and it is ſaid, that they can occaſionally fit out 100,000 men.

Baſil, the capital of the canton ſo called, ſtands on the frontiers of Alſace and Germany, on the banks of the river Rhine. It was founded on the ruins of a colony of the Romans, named *Auguſta Rauracorum*, ſome remains of which are yet to be ſeen at a village named Augſt, about ſeven miles to the eaſt. It has 220 ſtreets, 99 wells, and ſix market places. The ſtreets are paved with ſharp ſtones, in order to afford ſurer footing to the horſes who draw loads up the hill. It is divided by the Rhine into the Upper and Lower Town. The town-houſe has a great hall finely painted by Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The art of paper-making is ſaid to have been firſt invented here in 1417, by Anthony and Michael Gallicion.

Zurich, the capital of the canton of that name, is one of the beſt built towns in Switzerland. It ſtands on the river Livat near its influx into the lake Zurich. The moſt remarkable building is the Greek church, which has two ſteeples, one of them covered with copper. In the library is a collection of letters written in Latin by the unfortunate lady Jane Grey, to the reformer Bullinger; and in the arſenal is ſhewn the bow of the celebrated archer William Tell.

Geneva does not properly belong to the Helvetic body, though it is an aſſociate with them, being an independent ſtate of itſelf. It is ſeated on the Rhone, juſt where it iſſues from the lake which takes its name from the city. It is large, well fortified, and contains about 24,000 inhabitants. It has a ſmall territory belonging to it, which is exceedingly well cultivated, and every way delightful. The fortifications of the city are done in the modern manner, and are very ornamental by reaſon of the fine walks they have upon them. The univerſity has been greatly celebrated ever ſince the time of Calvin, though his ſentiments are now ſaid to have loſt ground very much in the republic. There are fountains and canals of water throughout all the ſtreets of the city, which are large and handſome. The lake on which the city ſtands is not leſs than 60 miles long, and twelve broad. It is wideſt in the middle, and becomes narrow towards each end. The depth in ſome places is unfathomable, and it abounds with perch, trout, and other kinds of fiſh, but they have lately been much decreaſed in number by pikes, and another ravenous kind of fiſh called *Montails*.

Commerce and Manufactures. The principal manufactures among the Swiſs are thoſe of ſilk, linen, cotton, and gloves; with ſome woollen and velvets; and though theſe are of no long ſtanding, the natural ingenuity of the people promiſes a very ſpeedy improvement, and great progreſs.

Conſtitution and Government. Theſe are in ſome cantons ariſtocratical, but in others democratical; and every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction. In all of them, however, the welfare of the people ſeems to be very much conſulted; and, as has already been obſerved, they appear to be exceedingly happy in compariſon with their neighbours who lie under a deſpotic government. There is likewiſe a remarkable harmony and affection between the different cantons, notwithſtanding their differences in religious and political ſentiments. The republic, properly ſo called, is divided into three parts. 1. The Swiſs properly ſo called. 2. The Griſons, or States in alliance with the Swiſs for their common defence; and 3. Thoſe States, which,

though ſubject to the two already mentioned, maintain their own magiſtrates and independency. Each canton is properly a ſmall republic of itſelf; but, when any controverſy ariſes, it muſt be decided by the voice of the general aſſembly, or diet, which is held at Baden. In this aſſembly every canton has a vote, and matters are decided by a majority of voices. It conſiſts of two deputies for every canton, beſides one from each of the cities of Bien and St Gall; and one from the abbot of St Gall. No part of Europe contains ſo many independent commonwealths, and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are to be met with in Switzerland; and ſo excellently are they adapted to each other, that no difference among them has been known to prevail. At the ſame time they have taken ſo much care to preſerve friendſhip with their neighbours, that, ſince the eſtabliſhment of their confederacy, they have ſcarce ever had occaſion to raiſe an army.

Revenues. It is ſomewhat difficult to give an account of the revenues of Switzerland, by reaſon of the variety of ſtates which compoſe the confederacy. The revenues of Bern are ſaid to amount to 300,000 crowns; thoſe of Zurich to 150,000; but the revenues of the other cantons have not been aſcertained. Whatever they may be, however, they certainly exceed the expences of government; and the overplus is always laid up as a common ſtock, ſo that the cantons, conſidered as a body, are wealthy. They are ſaid to have L. 500,000 ſtock in the Britiſh funds. The ſources of revenue in this country are, 1. The tenth part of the produce of all the lands. 2. Cuſtoms and duties upon merchandiſe. 3. The profits of the demeſne lands. 4. Thoſe ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and other caſual taxes.

Military Strength. In this country every one is obliged to learn the uſe of arms, and to exerciſe himſelf on appointed days by ſhooting at a mark, for which he muſt furniſh himſelf with proper accoutrements, and he is always obliged to have himſelf in readineſs for the defence of his country. As occaſions of this kind, however, do not often occur, the Swiſs are accuſtomed to hire themſelves to others for the purpoſes of war; a practice which muſt ſurely be looked upon as in the higheſt degree inconſiſtent with the common principles of humanity. No ſubject can be enliſted by force, or even by his own conſent, without obtaining that of the magiſtracy.

Hiſtory. The preſent inhabitants of Switzerland are deſcended from the ancient Helvetii who were ſubdued by Julius Cæſar. They preſerved their independency after the decline of the Roman empire, by reaſon of the mountainous nature of the country. In proceſs of time, however, they were ſubdued by Charlemagne, at leaſt they owned ſubjection to his ſucceſſors and the emperors of Germany. Finding themſelves grievouſly oppreſſed by the latter, they threw off the yoke about the year 1300. Concerning this there is a curious circumſtance mentioned by hiſtorians. The German governor, named Greſler, not knowing how to make himſelf ſufficiently reſpected, ſet up a hat upon a pole, to which he would have the ſame homage paid as to himſelf. One William Tell, an excellent archer, having frequently neglected to perform this duty, was complained of; and the cruel tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unleſs he could hit an apple, placed on his ſon's head, with an arrow. Tell hit the apple, but being aſked what he intended with another arrow ſtuck in his belt, told Greſler he intended to have killed him with it in caſe he had ſhot his ſon. On this he was impriſoned, but

made his eſcape, killed Greſler, and had a principal hand in the revolution. The cantons aſſociated with one another for the purpoſes of mutual defence at different times, but it was not till the year 1648 that the confederacy was owned as a free and independent ſtate. Since 1707 the king of Pruſſia has had the ſuperiority of Neufchatel, but the people remain very much at liberty; nor do all his revenues from that quarter exceed L. 5000, moſt of which is laid out in repairing the roads, and other works for the benefit of the country.

SPAIN.

Extent, Situation, &c. THIS country extends in length about 667 miles where longeſt, and 545 in breadth; lying between 36 and 44 degrees of north latitude, and between two and 10 of weſt longitude. It is bounded on the weſt by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; on the north by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from France; on the ſouth by the Straits of Gibraltar; and on the eaſt by the Mediterranean Sea.

Name. The preſent name of Spain is derived from the Latin word *Hiſpania*; but beſides this it was likewiſe known to the ancients by thoſe of *Heſperia* and *Iberia*; the origin of all which is very uncertain.

Diviſions. This country formerly included Portugal, though the latter, or at leaſt a diviſion, comprehending the modern Portugal, was afterwards known by the name of *Luſitania*. About the time of the wars with Carthage, the country was divided into Hiſpania Citerior and Ulterior; the former comprehending all the provinces that lie to the northward of the river Iberus, now the Ebro; and the latter all that lie beyond it. The following table exhibits the modern diviſions.

Countries

Spain.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
	Caſtile, New	27,850	226	181	MADRID { N. lat. 40-36. W. lon. 4-20.
	Andaluſia	16,510	274	136	Seville
	Caſtile, Old	14,420	194	142	Burgos
	Arragon	13,820	199	106	Saragoſſa
	Eſtremadura	12,610	189	122	Badajos
	Galicia	12,000	166	119	Compoſtella
	Leon	11,210	168	96	Leon
	Catalonia	9010	173	112	Barcelona
	Granada	8200	210	46	Granada
	Valencia	6810	182	76	Valencia
	Biſcay and Ipuſcoa	4750	142	56	Bilboa
	Aſturia	4610	125	54	Oviedo
	Murcia	3620	88	64	Murcia
	Upper Navarre	3020	93	44	Pampeluna
In the Mediterranean.	Majorca I.	1400	59	42	Majorca
	Yvica I.	625	38	26	Yvica
	Minorca	520	42	22	Citadella
	Total—	150,985			

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar ſubject to Great Britain.

Climate. In the ſouthern provinces the weather is exceſſively hot in the months of June, July, and Auguſt; while, on the other hand, the northern parts are very cold in winter. A chain of mountains runs through the middle of the kingdom, which proves very ſerviceable to the interior parts, by moderating the heat of the weather, and affording excellent paſture for their ſheep. The air is generally dry, and the ſky ſerene, except about the time of the equinox, when ſtorms are uſual as in other countries.

Soil. Spain produces ſpontaneouſly the fineſt fruits to be met with in Europe, as oranges, lemons, figs, grapes, almonds, &c.; and formerly it was very fruitful in corn, though now it is not remarkable on that account; but this proceeds from the indolence of the inhabitants, not from any defect of the country itſelf. The wines are in great requeſt, and Dr Buſching computes that the inhabitants of Malaga export wines, raiſins, &c. to the amount of L. 268,759 annually. There are, however, vaſt tracts of uncultivated ground; but it muſt be conſidered, that throughout Spain the inhabitants are exceſſively indolent, and it may be difficult to bring an inſtance of any other country where ſuch a number of people are maintained in a ſtate of idleneſs without working for their bread. In ſome parts of the country ſugar-canes are produced; and it beſides yields ſaffron, mulberry-trees, by which means ſilk is cultivated;

tivated; and abundance of honey. A vaſt quantity of aromatic herbs and ſhrubs are produced here, which render the fleſh of the ſheep and goats who feed upon them very delicious. Such a number of mulberry-trees are produced in Murcia, that the value of its ſilk is ſuppoſed to amount to L. 200,000 annually. Some of the mountains are clothed with trees and aromatic herbs up to the top. The country, however, is infeſted with locuſts, which in 1754 occaſioned a famine in the provinces of La Mancha, Andaluſia, Murcia, and Valencia. The immenſe multitudes of theſe creatures, their darkening the ſky by their numbers, and the prodigious devaſtation they occaſion, are well known; but Mr Dillon is of opinion, that, by proper attention, their eggs might be deſtroyed in ſuch quantities as ſoon to render them leſs formidable, if not to extirpate them totally.

Mountains. The principal of theſe are the Pyrenees, which ſeparate the kingdom from France. There are only five narrow paſſages between the two kingdoms; that between Rouſſillon and Catalonia has been lately improved in ſuch a manner as reflects great honour on the engineer who was employed in the undertaking. A carriage which four horſes can now draw with eaſe along this road, formerly required 30 oxen, and as many men to ſupport it. A range of mountains, called the Cantabrian mountains, which are a continuation of the Pyrenees, reach to the Atlantic Ocean on the ſouth of Cape Finiſterre. Mount Calpe, now the hill of Gibraltar, is remarkable for being one of Hercules's pillars; the other, called Mount Abyla, lying on the other ſide of the Straits, on the Continent of Africa.

Lakes and Rivers. There are ſeveral freſh-water lakes in this country, which abound with fiſh, particularly trout; and there is a lake near Antiquera, the water of which yields ſalt when evaporated by the heat of the ſun. The principal rivers are the Doura, the Tajo, formerly the Tagus, celebrated by the ancient poets for its golden ſands; though as this river is now remarkable on account of Liſbon the capital of Portugal being ſeated on its banks, we may reckon it rather a river of Portugal than of Spain: the Guadiana, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean, about 70 miles north-weſt of Lucar, and 420 ſouth-eaſt of Cape Finiſterre; alſo the Guadalquiver, now the Turio, the Ebro, Segura, Xucar, Guadalaviar, Lobregat, are all remarkable rivers of Spain; and the qualities of the river Tinto are ſo extraordinary, that it deſerves a place among the natural curioſities of the country.

Bays. The moſt remarkable of theſe are Biſcay, Vigo, Cadiz, Corunna, now the Groyne, Gibraltar, Altea, Valencia, with thoſe of Majorca in the iſland of that name, and Portmahon in the iſland of Minorca.

Metals and Minerals. Spain has been from time immemorial renowned for iron, which, next to that of Damaſcus, was reckoned the beſt in the world; and even at this day, the Spaniſh gun-barrels, and ſwords of Toledo are held in high eſtimation. In the times of the Romans, Spain was much celebrated for the quantity of ſilver it produced; and for which the country became an object of the rapacity, firſt of the Carthaginians, and afterwards of the Roman generals. Such was the plenty of ſilver at that time in the country, that, according to Strabo, the domeſtic utenſils of the Spaniards, as well as thoſe which were employed in agriculture, were made of ſilver. Theſe rich mines, however, are now no longer viſible, though probably rather through the indolence

of

of the inhabitants than their being exhauſted. There are a vaſt number of mineral productions to be met with in this country. Even diamonds, emeralds, and amethyſts are not wanting. Cornelian, agate, jaſper, jacinct, turquoiſes, loadſtones, the fineſt marble, rock cryſtal, calamine, quick-ſilver, &c. &c. are found in this country; and there are alſo mines of copper and lead, with plenty of ſulphur, alum, &c.

Animals. The wild bulls of Spain were formerly remarkable on account of their fierceneſs and ſtrength; inſomuch, that the encountering of them became a favourite diverſion among a people given up to enthuſiaſtic notions of valour, nor is it totally diſuſed at preſent. The Spaniſh horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Andaluſia are excellent, and much eſteemed not only on account of their ſwiftneſs, but becauſe of their beauty, in which they are reckoned to excel all others in Europe. The fineſt breeds are monopolized by the king. The mules and black cattle of Spain are likewiſe eſteemed, but their ſheep much more, which produce the fineſt wool in the world, and which makes one of the chief commodities of the country. Uſtariz, a Spaniſh writer, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given a particular account of their method of managing their ſheep, with the times of their removal to different places, for the ſake of a cool atmoſphere; which, however, our limits will not allow us to enter upon particularly. Wild fowl, and game of all kinds abound in Spain; but the country is peſtered with wolves, which often do great damage by deſtroying the cattle, and are very dangerous to travellers. Fiſh of all kinds are to be met with in the Spaniſh ſeas; but more particularly anchovies, which are cured here in great perfection, and exported to other countries.

Population, Inhabitants, &c. This country, formerly ſo populous, is now but thinly inhabited, for which various reaſons may be aſſigned. 1. The indolence of the inhabitants, who are at no pains to provide for their families. 2. The great number of emigrants to America. 3. The multitude of religious people of both ſexes, who live in celibacy; and, 4. The long wars with the Moors, and the final expulſion of that people from the country. They are ſtill computed to be between nine and ten millions; a ſmall number according to the extent of the country, and which ſhews England to be at leaſt three times as populous in proportion as Spain. In ancient times the inhabitants manifeſted the moſt obſtinate and determined valour; inſomuch, that the Romans with all their art and ſkill in military affairs, could ſcarce ſubdue them. The people at preſent are generally tall, ſwarthy complexioned, and full of their own importance. Before the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to the Spaniſh monarchy, they wore muſtachoes on their upper lip, ſhort cloaks, and ſtrait breeches, with long Toledo ſwords; but the government has been at pains to introduce the French dreſs, in which, however, they have not been altogether ſucceſsful, as that already mentioned has been retained out of hatred to the French. The Spaniſh gentlemen and nobility, eſpecially the Caſtilians, are proud, even to a proverb; but the common people are not to be diſtinguiſhed from other nations. Thoſe who inhabit the ſea-coaſts, being a mixture of the refuſe of other countries, are juſtly looked upon to be a mean and contemptible race; but the pride of thoſe of higher rank prevents them from being guilty of any ungenerous or diſhonourable action; and it has been remarked, that, notwithſtanding the many bitter wars which have taken place between Britain and Spain within this laſt century, there is no inſtance

ſtance of their taking the advantage of them, to confiſcate the property of the ſubjects of this country on board their galleons or plate-fleet; which is the more ſurpriſing, as their government was often put to great ſtraits for want of money during that time. During the late American war, alſo, it is obſerved that the Spaniards ſhewed many noble inſtances of humanity towards the Britiſh captives, not only by ſupplying them with all the neceſſaries of life, but money alſo, while they remained in their hands, treating them at the ſame time in the moſt friendly and hoſpitable manner. There are ſuppoſed to be about 40,000 gypſies in this kingdom, who make their livelihood by fortune-telling, and keeping inns in the towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards is ſummed up by Mr Swinburne in the following words: "The Catalans, ſays he, appear to be the moſt active ſtirring ſet of men, the beſt calculated for buſineſs, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians, a more ſullen ſedate race, better adapted for the occupations of huſbandry, leſs eager to change place, and of a much more timid, ſuſpicious caſt of mind than the former. The Andaluſians ſeem to be the greateſt talkers and rhodomontadoes of Spain. The Caſtilians have a manly frankneſs, and leſs appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Caſtilians are perhaps the leaſt induſtrious of the whole nation; the Old Caſtilians are laborious, and retain more of the old ſimplicity of manners, but both are of a firm and determined ſpirit. The Arragoneſe are a mixture of the Caſtilians and Catalans, rather inclining to the former. The Biſcayners are acute and diligent, fiery, and impatient of controul, more reſembling a colony of republicans than a province of a deſpotic monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding, pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in ſearch of an hardly earned ſubſiſtence."

It is remarkable that the Spaniſh monarchs of the houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom employed any native Spaniards in the quality of prince miniſter, but generally French or Italians, eſpecially the latter; and thoſe generally neither remarkable for their birth nor talents. Hence, the Spaniſh affairs have been but indifferently managed; as appears from the conduct of the celebrated miniſter Alberoni, who embroiled his maſter with all the powers of Europe, until he was at laſt driven from his place by the almoſt unanimous voice of the nation; nor were the proceedings of Grimaldi, the laſt Italian miniſter of Spain, much more agreeable; as they were found ſo oppreſſive, that a rebellion was almoſt occaſioned in the capital on his account.

The Spaniards are naturally amorous, and have accordingly been at great pains to celebrate the beauty of the ladies in their novels and romances; but it muſt be confeſſed that beauty is none of the moſt remarkable properties they poſſeſs. The Spaniſh women are generally ſmall and ſlender, but poſſeſſed of great wit and vivacity; though with regard to their perſons, they are frequently obliged to have recourſe to artificial means to ſupply the defects of nature, and this not always with ſucceſs. The indiſcriminate uſe of paint, particularly, which they apply not only to their faces, but their necks, hands, and arms, undoubtedly ſhrivels the ſkin, and ſpoils the complexion.

The generality of the Spaniſh nation are deſervedly accounted temperate both in eating and drinking. A great part of their victuals conſiſts of garlic, cives, ſallad, and radiſhes, which, they ſay proverbially, are food for a gentleman. Tea is ſeldom uſed among them, but in place of it they breakfaſt upon chocolate; they dine upon beef, mutton, veal,

veal, and pork all boiled together; and they very often breakfaſt, as well as ſup in bed. For drink, the women uſe water or chocolate, and the men uſe wine, but ſparingly. Both ſexes ſleep after dinner, and walk out in the cool of the evening to take the air. Dancing is their favourite diverſion; and they have alſo theatrical entertainments, but very indifferently managed. Bull-feaſts, as they are called, are likewiſe a great amuſement of the Spaniards, and are ſaid to have been borrowed by them from the Moors. At theſe, the young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhewing their valour before the ladies, and that not without the moſt imminent danger to themſelves. They value themſelves upon the number and fierceneſs of the bulls they have killed; but theſe encounters are often accompanied with circumſtances of great barbarity; there is not, however, a town in all Spain but what has a ſquare for the purpoſe of exhibiting fights of this kind; and, it is ſaid, that even the inhabitants of the pooreſt villages will often club together in order to fight a cow or an ox, riding upon aſſes inſtead of horſes; and thus ridiculing in the ſevereſt manner the barbarous diverſion juſt mentioned.

Religion. The eſtabliſhed religion of Spain is the Roman Catholic, and that of the moſt rigid and enthuſiaſtic kind. The cruelties of the inquiſition have long been known to prevail in this country; but theſe are now greatly mitigated. The court, however, is not aboliſhed, and it may ſtill act againſt pretended converts from Judaiſm and Mahometaniſm; but no ſentence of the inquiſition can be carried into execution without the royal authority. Spain has for many ages been diſtinguiſhed above the other countries of Europe for its zeal in the cauſe of the Catholic religion; and for this reaſon the kings have obtained the title of *Moſt Catholic*. This vehement zeal, however, is now much abated; and the cauſe of ſuperſtition in this, as well as in other countries, is greatly decayed; nevertheleſs there are ſtill a great number of uſeleſs and lazy eccleſiaſtics, who are of no real ſervice to the nation, but ſerve to keep the people in ignorance rather than to inſtruct them. It is a certain caſe, that as little true Chriſtianity is to be met with in Spain as in any country in Europe; though there are ſuppoſed to be upwards of 100,000 friars, nuns, &c. in the kingdom; but a royal edict has lately paſſed, by which the admiſſion of noviciates into the different convents without ſpecial permiſſion is prohibited.

Archbiſhoprics and Biſhoprics. In this kingdom there are eight archbiſhoprics, of which that of Toledo is accounted the principal, and the poſſeſſor of the See has the title of Primate. He is alſo great chancellor of Caſtile, and his revenue is ſuppoſed to amount to L 100,000 *per annum*; though various methods have been fallen upon to leſſen the eccleſiaſtical revenues of Spain, by penſions, donations to hoſpitals, premiums to the ſocieties of agriculture, &c. No leſs than 15,000 ducats are annually paid out of the revenues of this archbiſhopric to the Eſcurial, beſides other penſions; and all the conſiderable eccleſiaſtic revenues of Spain are ſaid to be in the ſame predicament. The riches of the churches and convents of Spain have been greatly admired by travellers; though it is obſerved that there is a diſagreeable ſameneſs among them all.

Language. The foundation of the Spaniſh language, as well as that of Italy, is the Latin; which it reſembles ſo much, that, were it not for the Gothic and Moriſco words which have been introduced, and

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the different terminations, it might be called a kind of dialect of the Latin. It is generally reckoned a noble and majeſtic language, and has retained its purity for almoſt 200 years, though it is very difficult to tranſlate it in ſuch a manner as to preſerve the dignity of the original.

Learning and Learned Men. Though the capacities of the Spaniards are univerſally allowed to be excellent, the country has not produced a proportionable number of learned men; for which we may aſſign as reaſons the indolence and bigotry of the people, but eſpecially the deſpotic government under which they labour. However, ſeveral fathers of the church were Spaniards, and poetry appears to have been cultivated in this country in very early ages. Before the conqueſt of Spain by the Saracens, many of the inhabitants were well verſed in the learning of the Romans; but after that time they exchanged this kind of literature for that of the Arabians ſo entirely, that Alvara of Cordova, a Spaniſh writer, complains of the Latin language being almoſt entirely extinct in his time. The attachment of the Spaniards to Oriental learning at that time was indeed ſo great, that they could not only write and ſpeak Arabic with great fluency, but compoſe verſes in the language as well as the Arabians themſelves. The Jews, who were at this time tolerated in Spain, diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the figure they made in literature; and about the year 967, Rabbi Moſes, a learned Jew, with his ſon Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, but redeemed by their brethren, after having been ſold for ſlaves at Cordova, eſtabliſhed a ſchool in that city, of which Rabbi Moſes was the head. In 1039, one Rabbi Ezechias, who preſided over a college at Babylon, having been put to death, the academy was transferred to Cordova, where many learned Jews flouriſhed, who publiſhed ſome Hebrew poems that have been taken notice of; and by their intercourſe with the Spaniards, many Hebrew proverbs and phraſes have been mixed with their language. To them alſo the Spaniards are indebted for a tranſlation of the Old Teſtament. The marquis of Villena, who flouriſhed about the middle of the 15th century, publiſhed a famous work, entitled, *Arte de de la Gaya Scientia*, containing a ſyſtem of poetry, oratory, and rhetoric; beſides an account of the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions. The ſame author alſo tranſlated the Eneid of Virgil into Spaniſh verſe. Other conſiderable poets were, Juan de Mena of Cordova, and Juan de la Emina. Both of them flouriſhed at the ſame time; the poems of the former being publiſhed in 1515, and of the latter in 1516; but the beſt dramatic poet ever produced by Spain, was Lopez de Vega, the cotemporary of Shakeſpear. He was a man of great genius, though the critics have found a great many faults with his writings; and indeed we can ſcarce wonder at this, conſidering the bulk of his works; for his fugitive pieces, lyric compoſitions, detached eſſays, and other compoſitions of a miſcellaneous nature, alone fill 56 volumes; and his dramatic works 26 volumes more, excluſive of 400 ſcriptural dramatic pieces, called by the Spaniards *Autos Sacramentales*. Another dramatic writer of ſome note is Calderona; but many of his plays are very licentious. In divinity, Spain can boaſt of the moſt bulky writer perhaps in the world, viz. Toſtatus; but unfortunately theſe writings are now diſtinguiſhed only by their ſize. Herrera is eſteemed as an hiſtorian, as well as de Solis, and ſome others, who have ſhown great ſkill in the inveſtigation of the antiquities of America, and the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen. In point of learning,

ing, however, it muſt be acknowledged that the Spaniards are by no means eminent. Claſſical learning is at a very low ebb among them, and a perſon of common education in this country would be deemed a learned man in Spain. In ſeveral of the arts, particularly painting, ſculpture, and architecture, they have diſtinguiſhed themſelves conſiderably.

Univerſities. Theſe are 24 in number, of which the moſt eſteemed is that of Salamanca, founded in the year 1200, by Alphonſus the ninth king of Leon. It has 21 colleges, ſome of which are very magnificent, and moſt of the young nobility are educated here. The other univerſities are Granada, Compoſtella, Seville, Toledo, Alcala, Valladolid, Valencia, Siguenza, Hueſca, Lerida, Tortoſa, Saragoſſa, Onata, Oſſuna, Barcelona, Murcia, Candia, Avila, Bæza, Palencia, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Taragona.

Antiquities and Curioſities. Spain contains many marks of the grandeur both of the ancient Romans and Saracens. There are ſtill extant ſeveral magnificent aqueducts; particularly one conſtructed by Trajan, extending quite over a deep valley, and ſupported by a double row of 152 arches. At Toledo there is extant a Roman theatre, ſo entire as to be now converted into a church, and which is deſervedly accounted a great curioſity. It is about 600 feet in length, and 500 in breadth; the roof ſupported by 350 pillars of fine marble. It has 24 gates, 366 altars, and every part is enriched with the moſt beautiful and coſtly ornaments. At a town called Martorel, there was a bridge conſtructed by Hannibal the celebrated Carthaginian general, the durability of which was ſuch, that it continued upwards of 1980 years. In 1768, it was demoliſhed, and a new one built with the materials. A triumphal arch, ſaid to have been erected by that great warrior in honour of his father Hamilcar, is ſtill extant at the northend, and almoſt entire. It has no ornaments, except ſome rims of hewn ſtone. At Murviedro, formerly the Saguntum of the Romans, are the remains of a theatre of a ſemicircular figure, and about 82 yards in diameter; ſo large, that 9000 people might attend at once, and ſome of the galleries are cut out of the ſolid rock. Near Salamanca are the remains of a Roman military way. It is paved with flat ſtones, and reached from Salamanca to Merida, and from thence to Seville. Near Cadiz are the remains of a watch-tower, which ſome imagine, though without any good foundation, to have been one of the pillars of Hercules.

The remains of the Saracen or Mooriſh grandeur are ſtill very magnificent. The beſt preſerved of any of them is the palace of Alhambra in Granada, which was built by the Moors in 1280, and fell into the hands of the Spaniards in 1492. It ſtands on an hill, the road up which is pleaſantly ſhaded by rows of imperial myrtles and elms. Another palace was founded here by Charles V. but never finiſhed. This modern palace was ſituated within the walls of the Alhambra. The ancient building is conſtructed of yellow ſtone, being a ſquare of 190 feet. In the inſide is a grand circular court, having a portico of the Tuſcan, but the gallery of the Doric order; and both of them ſupported by 32 columns, framed of as many ſolid pieces of marble. There are many fine ornaments upon the grand entrance, particularly columns of jaſper, and repreſentations of battles in baſſo relievo. The inſide is perhaps the moſt curious in Europe. Moſt of the rooms have ſtuccoed walls and ceilings, ſome of them carved, others gilt, with

many Arabic inſcriptions upon them. There are baths of white marble; the floors, ceilings, and walls being all of the ſame material. There are fine gardens belonging to the palace, abounding with the moſt delicious fruits; and at the end of theſe gardens is another palace. The Moors put ſuch a value upon this city, that, to this day they lament the loſs of it, and offer up prayers for its recovery

The river Guadiana was formerly celebrated as a natural curioſity, on account of its being ſuppoſed to run under ground for a conſiderable way; but ſome late travellers have declared this to be a miſtake, and that the banks of it are only overgrown with wood and buſhes to ſuch a degree that the water is not viſible for all that ſpace. There are ſeveral medicinal ſprings in this country, and ſome lakes which make a noiſe before a ſtorm. The rock of Gibraltar is a very great natural curioſity, as being ſaid to conſiſt moſtly of the bones of animals cemented by a calcareous matter; as a proof of which, ſeveral pieces of it are depoſited in the Britiſh muſeum. St. Michael's cave, on the weſt ſide of the mountain, is remarkable for its petrefactions, occaſioned by the dripping of the water from the roof. Theſe hang in large columns from the roof, are of a whitiſh colour, and it is ſuppoſed will in time fill up the ſpace altogether. From the top of this rock there is an admirable proſpect extending along the coaſt of Spain, and a conſiderable way into the African continent. From the palace of Ginaraliph, at the end of the gardens of the Alhambra above-mentioned, is likewiſe a very fine proſpect; the whole plain country of Granada, bounded by ſnowy mountains, being viſible from its balcony.

At Madrid there is a royal cabinet of natural hiſtory, which, in the year 1775, was opened by the king's order, and is now ſhown publickly twice a week. Here are to be ſeen many valuable and curious minerals; as well as ſcarce and rare animals, though the latter is not very complete; but there are a vaſt number of vaſes of different ſorts, all made of the fineſt agate, rock-chryſtal, amethyſt, and other precious materials, admirably wrought, and ſaid to have been brought from France by Philip V. Many utenſils of the Mexicans and Peruvians are alſo kept in this place.

Principal Cities. Madrid, the capital of the whole kingdom, is a large and populous city, ſaid to contain 300,000 inhabitants. It is not, however, a place of any ſtrength, being defended only by a mud wall. It is ſurrounded by lofty mountains, the tops of which are frequently covered with ſnow. It is well lighted and paved, though this laſt is only of late, and the ſtreets are now alſo kept clean, which was not formerly the caſe; for ſome authors informs us that they were ſo exceſſively naſty, as to be ſmelt a mile off. This was owing to the indolence of the inhabitants, who emptied all kinds of filth into the ſtreets, rather than they would be at the trouble of carrying it off. So much indeed were they attached to this filthineſs, that the obliging them to act otherwiſe almoſt produced an inſurrection in the city. It is alſo very remarkable, that, in the conteſt upon this occaſion, the *phyſicians* are ſaid to have taken part with the commonalty, and to have maintained that the ſmell of dung and putrefaction was exceedingly ſalutary to the human conſtitution. Royal authority, however, at laſt prevailed, and the city was kept in the ſame ſtate of cleanlineſs as others. Moſt of the houſes are built of brick, ſo that they make no great appearance outwardly; nor are they well laid out in the inſide; for though

though there are many ſtately apartments within, the family frequently ſit in a miſerable confined one in a remote corner of the houſe. The windows are alſo furniſhed with iron bars, eſpecially the lower ſtory, which, together with their balconies, make them all look like as many priſons. Lodgings are not eaſily procured for ſtrangers, eſpecially if they are not Catholics; the Spaniards not being fond of admitting them. Proviſions are very good and cheap, but there is neither coffee-houſe, tavern, nor newſpaper in the city, excepting only the Madrid gazette. Here is a royal palace; but the grandeſt of all theſe buildings is the Eſcurial, which ſtands at the diſtance of 22 miles from the capital. This is ſaid to have coſt more than any other of the kind in Europe, and a deſcription of it, which fills a quarto volume, has been publiſhed by one Mr. Thomſon a Yorkſhire gentleman. It is built, however, in a fantaſtical and ridiculous manner, having the ſhape of a gridiron, in honour of St. Laurence, who is ſaid to have been roaſted on an inſtrument of this kind. The ſame figure is alſo repeated within the walls, ſo often that it becomes quite diſguſting. It was dedicated to this ſaint on account of the victory over the French at St. Quintin, being obtained on St. Laurence's day 1557. The whole forms a parallellogram of 640 feet by 580, and the apartments occupied by the king make the handle of the gridiron. The height is about 60 feet, but the building upon the whole has a diſmal and gloomy aſpect, and is beſides compoſed of ſuch diſcordant pieces of architecture, that though the workmanſhip of many of them is admirable, the effect of the whole is diſagreeable. It was founded by Philip II. who is ſaid to have expended upon it no leſs than ſix millions of ducats. Its apartments are decorated with an aſtoniſhing quantity of ornaments of the moſt precious kind, as gold, ſilver, jewels, and the fineſt ſculptures and paintings. Some of theſe laſt can hardly be equalled by any in the world. Beſides the palace properly ſo called, the Eſcurial has a fine church; a library containing 30,000 volumes, extenſive walks, parks, and gardens, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, and a convent. In theſe laſt, there are about 200 religious people, who have an annual revenue of L. 12,000; and there are likewiſe apartments for mechanics and artiſts of every kind. In ſuch a prodigious extent of building, there muſt naturally be an immenſe number of windows; thoſe on the weſt ſide are ſaid to amount to 200, and thoſe on the eaſt to 366. The mauſoleum is the common burying-place of the Spaniſh kings and queens, and is called the *Pantheon*, from its being conſtructed after the model of that building at Rome; the church, already mentioned being alſo conſtructed upon the model of St. Peter's. The mauſoleum is about 36 feet in diameter, and all built of fine marble.

Next to Madrid we may reckon Cadiz, which is eſteemed the moſt commercial city in all the Spaniſh dominions. It belongs to the province of Andaluſia, but is ſeparated from the continent by a narrow ſtrait, over which a bridge is thrown to make a communication with the main land. The iſland on which Cadiz ſtands is ſituated in a bay, called the bay of Cadiz, the entrance of which is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts, called the *Puntals*, and there was likewiſe another ſmall iſland in the bay, where the inhabitants had pleaſure-houſes, but it has been ſome time ſince ſwallowed up. On the ſouth ſide, the city is inacceſſible by ſea, on account of the banks which lie before it; and on the north there is a ſand-bank, which renders any at-

tempt that way very dangerous. The houſes of Cadiz are lofty, but have flat roofs, and generally have a turret for a view of the ſea. The inhabitants are computed at 140,000, of whom 24 000 are French and Italians. This city was taken, plundered, and burnt by the Engliſh in 1596; but in 1702 it was attempted by the Engliſh and Dutch in conjunction, without any ſucceſs; and ſince that time it has never been attempted by the Britiſh, by reaſon of the great concern the merchants of this country have in the treaſures brought to this place, which could not eaſily be regained from the captors. The city is ſaid to have been originally built by the Phœnicians, and there were not many ages ago ſeveral valuable antiquities of Phœnician origin, as the remains of the temple of Hercules, two brazen pillars, &c. which are now entirely loſt. The ſtreets of Cadiz reſemble thoſe of Madrid before the reformation took place, which we mentioned when treating of that city, being naſty, ill paved, and infeſted with rats in the night time.

Cordova, likewiſe a city of Andaluſia, is remarkable for its commerce, and particularly for a manufacture of leather, which, from the place, takes the name of Cordovan leather. Authors differ with regard to the city itſelf; ſome telling us that it is now quite inconſiderable, others, that it is a fine large city. It ſtands on the river Guadalquiver, at the foot of a high mountain, which is a branch of the Sierra Morena; and the neighbouring high grounds are full of gardens and vineyards, with groves of oranges, citrons, figs, and olives. It has likewiſe an univerſity, and carries on a conſiderable trade in wine and ſilk, as well as in the leather above-mentioned. Here is a large cathedral, formerly a Turkiſh moſque; and from its former maſters ſtill called *Mezquita*. It is divided into 17 ailes by rows of pillars, 365 in number, all conſtructed of the fineſt marble. There is a vaſt quantity of plate, the value of which may be imagined from that of four candleſticks there, which are ſaid to be worth L. 850 each. The revenue of the ſee amounts to 40,000 ducats annually, but after the death of the biſhops, eſcheats to the king, none of the biſhops being allowed to leave any thing by will.

Barcelona, the capital of Catalonia, ſaid to take its name from Hamilcar Barcas, the father of Hannibal the Great, ſtands at the foot of Montjoui on the Mediterranean, a little below the gulf of Lyons. It is of very conſiderable magnitude, being ſuppoſed to contain 15,000 houſes; and moſt of the ſtreets are well paved, lighted, and kept clean. It ſupplies moſt of the kingdom with arms and clothing, and is ſuppoſed to contain 150,000 inhabitants. It has a large, convenient, and ſecure harbour, defended on one ſide by a large mole, at the extremity of which is a light-houſe, with a fort and garriſon, for the defence of ſmall veſſels; thoſe of great bulk lying out in the road. On the other ſide the harbour is covered by the caſtle of Montjoui, between which and the city there is a line of communication; and upon this there is a fort, which flanks and commands the entrance into the harbour. In the year 1700, the Spaniſh monarchy having devolved on a branch of the Houſe of Bourbon, the French made themſelves maſters of this city; but they were oppoſed by the Britiſh, who had eſpouſed the cauſe of Charles archduke of Auſtria, afterwards Charles VI. emperor of Germany. The earl of Peterborough, a man of the moſt enthuſiaſtic valour, commanded on this occaſion, and, under his auſpices, the city was taken by a body of men not much ſuperior to that of which the garriſon conſiſted. In April 1706 it was inveſted by Philip duke of Anjou, and

marſhal

marſhal de Teſſe; but the garriſon held out for 25 days, till relief was brought by the earl of Peterborough, and Sir John Leake the Engliſh admiral. On their approach the French and Spaniards raiſed the ſiege with great precipitation, leaving behind them all their tents, baggage, ammunition, and wounded men. In 1712 Charles was choſen emperor, and the people of Barcelona erected themſelves into a kind of republic, but were obliged to ſubmit, in 1714, to Philip V. A ſtrange cuſtom prevails here, viz. that the inhabitants, on the firſt of November, run from one houſe to another to eat cheſnuts; imagining, that, for every cheſnut they ſwallow, they deliver a ſoul from purgatory.

Seville is accounted the capital of Andaluſia, and, next to Madrid, is the largeſt city in Spain, though now much decayed both in its wealth and the number of its inhabitants. It is ſituated in a large plain, near the river Guadalquiver, and is almoſt of a circular form, ſurrounded with ſtrong walls, and fortifications flanked with high towers. Here is an aqueduct ſix miles long, built by the Saracens. The cathedral church is the largeſt in the kingdom, and ſupported by two rows of ſtately columns of a great height. The ſteeple conſiſts of three towers placed one above another, and is a piece of curious architecture. The maritime ſituation of this town renders it a very proper place for trade, but it is now greatly decayed in this reſpect. Formerly it had a vaſt number of manufactures both of wool and ſilk, but there are not now above one-fourth of them remaining; and the government office for America is now removed to Cadiz. The firſt clock made in Spain was ſet up in Seville, in the year 1400, in preſence of king Henry III. The ſteeple of the cathedral above mentioned is reckoned a curioſity. It is higher than that of St Paul's in London; but Mr Swinburne thinks the cathedral itſelf much inferior to York-minſter in many reſpects.

Carthagena ſtands in the kingdom of Murcia, on a fine bay, and is of conſiderable magnitude. It has the beſt harbour in Spain but formerly was much more conſiderable than at preſent. It is defended by 40 cannon pointed towards the ſea. Mr Swinburne informs us, that, when he viſited it in 1775, there were 800 Spaniſh ſlaves working at the pump to keep the docks dry, and 600 others from Barbary, all of whom were treated with great inhumanity; though he adds that the crimes of the Spaniards deſerved exemplary puniſhment. The harbour is naturally formed in the ſhape of an heart, and there is a fine arſenal to the ſouth-weſt of the town. The bay of Carthagena abounds with mackarel to ſuch a degree, that a ſmall iſland in it has got the name of *Scombraria*, from a word ſignifying a mackarel, as the city itſelf has obtained that of *Spartaria*, from a word ſignifying broom, on account of the great quantities of broom which grow in its neighbourhood. Carthagena was built by the Carthaginians, and was the *New Carthage* ſpoken of by the Latin hiſtorians.

Valencia is capital of the province of that name, and is almoſt of a circular form, defended by a ſtrong wall and ſeveral towers. It has a conſiderable number of inhabitants; but the ſtreets are narrow, and not paved, and the houſes ill built. There is a conſiderable trade carried on here, particularly in ſilk, which the women and children ſpin before their doors. It is well ſupplied with water, not only from the river Guadalquiver, on which it ſtands, but from a great number of deep wells dug in different parts of it by the inhabitants. The people are ſaid to be eaſy and familiar in converſation, without any of that ſtiffneſs

for

for which the reſt of the Spaniards are ſo remarkable. In 1705 Valencia was taken by the earl of Peterborough, but recovered in 1707 ſoon after the battle of Almanza; ſince which time the inhabitants have been deprived of moſt of their privileges.

Granada, the capital of the kingdom ſo called, ſtands at the foot of a high mountain named *Sierra Nevada*, which lies to the ſouthward, and on the eaſt it has another called *Elvira*. It is one of the largeſt cities in Spain, has 20 gates, and is adorned with two fine caſtles, one at each of its extremities. It has ſix fine ſquares, the buildings of which are all handſome and regular, with ſpacious ſtreets leading to them. It was formerly a place of great eſtimation, and is ſtill ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants; but the greateſt part of theſe are ſaid to contribute nothing to the good of the community; being either beggars, or idle eccleſiaſtics, and lawyers. However, the neighbouring country is ſtill agreeable, and the air very healthful.

Malaga, another city of Granada, is ſituated on the Mediterranean Sea, at the foot of a ſteep mountain, and has one of the beſt roads in Spain. It has a fine mole, about 350 paces in length, and 20 in breadth, with ſtairs for taking water at. It is of a circular form, and pretty populous, and handſomely built. The ſoil in the neighbourhood is extremely rich, and remarkable for producing the fineſt fruits. The neighbouring mountains afford an excellent kind of grapes, from which is made the Malaga or mountain wine held in ſo much eſtimation. Great quantities of this wine are exported, as well as of fruits of various kinds, inſomuch, that the duties upon theſe articles alone amount to 800,000 ducats annually.

Bilboa is capital of the province of Biſcay, and ſtands on the river Ibaicaval, at the diſtance of ſix miles from the ſea. It is large and populous, containing about 1200 houſes, and has a bridge over the river. There is a large ſquare by the river ſide adorned with pleaſant and ſhady walks. The houſes are well built, and the ſtreets paved, and kept clean. The inhabitants have been at great pains to preſerve themſelves from any mixture of Jews or Moors, and therefore will not allow any family to ſettle among them till they can prove themſelves to be of the old Chriſtian extraction.

Salamanca is a very ancient and celebrated city of the kingdom of Leon, ſeated on the river Tormes, and is of a circular form, ſtanding upon three hills, including two valleys between them, and has fine proſpects on every ſide. There are ſaid to be 5000 houſes, with 162 ſtreets, and 17 fine ſquares. Of theſe the great ſquare, built about half a century ago, is reckoned the moſt elegant. The houſes are all of three ſtories, of equal height, and exactly proportioned; each of them having iron balconies, and a ſtone balluſtrade at the top. A piazza is formed on every ſide of the ſquare by arches in the lower parts of the houſes. There is a bridge over the river, of 25 arches, built by the Romans.

Toledo, the capital of the kingdom of New Caſtile, and anciently the ſeat of the Gothic and Saracen princes, ſtands on a ſteep and craggy rock, almoſt ſurrounded by the river Tagus. On the land ſide it is ſtrongly fortified by a wall with about 150 towers upon it. It was formerly very large and populous, but the neighbourhood of Madrid has deprived it of the moſt wealthy inhabitants, ſo that the houſes are now very mean and ill built. The manufacture of ſword blades, for which this city was anciently ſo remarkable, ſtill continues, and is of conſiderable

rable ſervice to the remaining inhabitants. Some manufactures of ſilk-ſtuffs alſo continue in this place.

Burgos was in ancient times accounted the capital of Caſtile, but now is held in no ſuch eſtimation. It is ſeated on the declivity of an hill, cloſe by which runs the river Alançon, over which there is a fine bridge. It is ſurrounded by other mountains, which render the air exceſſively hot in ſummer, and cold in winter. The houſes in general are ill built, but the cathedral is eſteemed one of the fineſt in all Spain. Here are ſeveral convents and nunneries, one of which laſt contains 150 nuns, all of whom muſt be of noble extraction. Here is likewiſe a royal hoſpital richly endowed, and the inhabitants ſpeak the beſt Spaniſh in the kingdom.

Gibraltar, though very inconſiderable as a city, deſerves nevertheleſs to be mentioned on account of the importance and ſtrength of its fortreſs. It is ſeated in the province of Andaluſia, at the mouth of the Straits, called from it the Straits of Gibraltar, between the Atlantic and Mediterranean, and by reaſon of the importance of its fortifications, is looked upon to be the key of Spain. It is built upon a rock, the ſummit of which is computed to be 1537 feet in height above the level of the ſea; and this ſtands on a peninſula, to which on the land ſide there is only acceſs by a narrow paſſage between the rock and the ſea. This paſſage is likewiſe ſo fortified by ſtrong walls, and ſurrounded by high and ſteep hills, that it could not be forced. It has only two gates to the land ſide, and as many towards the ſea; and the Spaniards have drawn a line acroſs the iſthmus to prevent any communication betwixt the garriſon and the inhabitants of the country behind them. Notwithſtanding this prohibition, however, a clandeſtine trade takes place, eſpecially in the article tobacco, of which the Spaniards are very fond. The Britiſh garriſon are confined within a very narrow compaſs, and, as the ground is there extremely barren, they are often driven to great diſtreſs for want of vegetables, eſpecially in the caſe of a war with Spain. This place is very expenſive to the Britiſh government, as all the proviſions neceſſary for the garriſon muſt be brought either from Britain, or the town of Ceuta on the oppoſite ſide of the Straits. Gibraltar was taken from the Spaniards in 1704, and has undergone ſeveral remarkable ſieges ſince that time, particularly in 1779, of which an account ſhall be given in its proper place.

The principal buildings in Spain are not of modern architecture. Indeed, as has been already obſerved, the Spaniards, whatever their genius may be, are ſo indolent, that arts of any kind are by no means common among them. The royal palaces, however, are very magnificent. Thoſe of the Alhambra and Eſcurial have been already deſcribed. The palace at Madrid conſiſts of three courts, and commands a fine proſpect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet long, and 100 in height. The audience chamber is 120 feet long, and hung with crimſon velvet embroidered with gold. It has 12 tables of the fineſt marble produced in Spain, and as many looking-glaſſes, 10 feet in height. There is another palace at Aranjuez, which is repreſented by a late traveller as extremely delightful. It has a park of very conſiderable extent around it, through which are cut alleys of two, three, or even four miles in length; each formed by two double rows of elm trees, in order to make the ſhade more thick. Vaſt numbers of wild animals wander at pleaſure among the thick groves of ſmaller trees which are included between the alleys.

alleys. This park is divided by the river Tagus, and in the centre ſtands the king's palace, which, though elegant, is not magnificent: its garden, however, is finely adorned with fountains and ſtatues, as well as with flowers, both of the European and American kinds. The palace of St Ildephonſo is by no means remarkable for its architecture; being built only of brick plaiſtered and painted, and no more than two ſtories high. It is adorned, however, with fine gardens, in which are fountains that ſpout up water to an extraordinary height. They are ſituated on the declivity of an eminence, on the top of which is a vaſt collection of water, by which the fountains are ſupplied. Theſe ſpouting fountains are 27 in number, and are reckoned much ſuperior to thoſe of Verſailles; the baſons are of white marble, and many of the ſtatues with which they are adorned, of excellent workmanſhip. The latter are all of lead bronzed and gilt. Beſides theſe the gardens have 61 very fine marble ſtatues as large as the life, 28 marble vaſes, and 20 lead ones gilt. The palace itſelf contains many valuable paintings and ſculptures.

Under this head we ſhall mention the three Spaniſh iſlands in the Mediterranean, viz. thoſe of Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica. The firſt lies oppoſite to the coaſt of Valencia, being ſomewhat in the form of an oblong ſquare, whoſe four angles lie towards the cardinal points, viz. Dragonera on the weſt; Pedra on the eaſt; St Vincent, or Formentor on the north; and Salinas on the ſouth. The iſland lies 110 miles ſouth of the coaſt of Catalonia, and is ſurrounded with high towers, from which an enemy may be ſeen at a conſiderable diſtance. The natives are well made and ſtrong, and ſpeak the Spaniſh language with an intermixture of ſome Celtic words. Majorca was formerly a kingdom of itſelf, and the king aſſiſted the French againſt Edward III. at the battle of Creſſy.

The capital of this iſland, called likewiſe Majorca, lies on the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, between two capes, and is a large place fortified after the modern manner. It has about 10,000 inhabitants, and ſome of the houſes are built of ſtone, and tolerably large. It has an univerſity, and is the ſee of a biſhop, whoſe revenue amounts to 20,000 ducats. Here is a ſquare called *Born*, where the bull-feaſts are exhibited, and in which the houſes are well built and ſtately. The people, and indeed the inhabitants of the iſland of Majorca in general, fit out the beſt privateers in the Mediterranean.

Minorca lies about 50 miles to the north eaſt of Majorca, and is about 30 miles long, and twelve in breadth where broadeſt. The air is clear, though not quite free from fogs; but, by reaſon of the vaſt quantity of vapour raiſed from the Mediterranean, it is extremely moiſt, ſo that iron can ſcarce be preſerved by any means from ruſting. The Summers are generally very hot and dry, excepting only that eſſential moiſture of the atmoſphere already mentioned; but in Spring the weather is variable, and there are ſometimes violent ſtorms in Winter, though ſeldom of long continuance. The ſurface of the ground is unequal, and interſected with deep and narrow valleys; but in moſt places there is ſo little earth that the whole ſeems to be one irregular rock, covered in ſome places with mould, and in others with heaps of ſtones. Great damage is often done about the Autumnal equinox, by the violent rains, which ſometimes pour down in ſuch quantities, that the water runs in torrents down the ſides of the mountains, tearing up trees, and waſhing away the earth to the bare rock, beſides doing miſchief otherwiſe by carrying away cattle, &c. By reaſon of the exceſſive lightneſs

of the ſoil, the tillage of the ground in this iſland is very eaſy. A man may carry the plough on his ſhoulder, and it is drawn by a ſingle heifer, or ſometimes by an aſs, with the aſſiſtance of an hog. The ſoil, however, produces wheat, and other kinds of grain, as well as hemp, flax, and tobacco. They have likewiſe abundance of pot-herbs and vegetables of that kind; and in Summer they have Guinea pepper, with cucumbers of various kinds, melons, &c. They have alſo vines, which produce wine of a very good quality. All the fruits common in this country grow in Minorca, and they have beſides pomegranates, citrons, oranges, almonds, lemons, and the Indian fig. In their gardens they cultivate the laurel, poplar, Egyptian thorn, bead-tree, and fig-tree, which laſt produces two crops a year. Palm trees likewiſe grow in this iſland, and they have a number of aromatic plants which perfume the air with their ſcent. They have plenty of black cattle, ſheep, and goats, with abundance of hogs, ſo that bacon is always to be got. A great variety of fowls, both of the land and water kinds, are to be met with in Minorca. The inhabitants are ſaid to be extremely amorous, ſo that both ſexes uſually marry at 14; but they are alſo very choleric and revengeful; and quarrels are ſometimes kept up among them from generation to generation. They retain many of the cuſtoms of ancient times, and are ſtill famous for the uſe of the ſling, for which they were ſo much admired in former times. This iſland was taken from the Spaniards in 1708; from which time it remained in the hands of the Britiſh till 1756, when it was taken by the French after a ſtout reſiſtance on the part of general Blakeney and his garriſon. Admiral Byng was ſent with a ſquadron to its relief, but returned without attempting any thing, for which he ſuffered death. It was taken by the Spaniards in the month of February 1782, and confirmed to that power by the general treaty of peace in 1783. The capital of Minorca is called St Philip's; where there is a ſtrong caſtle, and its harbour, Mahon, is one of the fineſt in Europe.

Yvica is ſituated between the coaſt of Valencia in Spain, and the iſland of Majorca, being about 30 miles long, and 26 broad. It is a mountainous and barren country, being chiefly productive of ſalt. Its capital town is likewiſe called Yvica. Theſe three iſlands were formerly called the *Balearic Iſlands*, from the ſkill of their inhabitants in uſing the ſling. They were conquered, and the people almoſt exterminated by Metellus the Roman general.

Commerce and Manufactures. The principal commodities either exported from Spain or imported into it are gold and ſilver; both of which come from America in great quantities, and from Spain are circulated through all the kingdoms of Europe. The principal place where this branch of commerce is carried on is Cadiz. "Hither, ſays Dr Anderſon in his hiſtory of commerce, other European nations ſend their merchandiſe to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſheltered (or, as our old Engliſh phraſe has it) coloured, under the name of Spaniſh factors." At Cadiz, indeed, the ſtore-houſes and magazines for all kinds of commerce are ſaid to be the fineſt of any in the world; and to this place the treaſures of South America are regularly brought in the flota and galleons. The real produce of Spain ſent to America is but of little value; though the duties laid upon foreign commodities would yield a very conſiderable revenue, were it not for the many ways in which the payment of them are evaded. The Spaniſh government

have uſed their utmoſt endeavours to prevent other nations from reaping the benefit of the American commerce; but this never can be done while the indolence of the native Spaniards remains. Were a ſpirit of activity and induſtry once to be awakened among the natives of the mother country, there is no doubt that they would in a ſhort time effectually exclude every other nation from this beneficial traffic, in which the dealers are ſaid to gain at leaſt 20 *per cent.* The Spaniſh manufactures are chiefly thoſe of ſilk, wool, copper, and hardware of various kinds.

Conſtitution and Government. This is now to the laſt degree deſpotic; though formerly the Spaniards could boaſt of being the freeſt people in Europe. Indeed the poverty ſo viſible throughout the whole kingdom is with great probability aſcribed to the deſpotiſm under which the people groan. The cortes, or parliaments of the kingdom, had formerly more power than even thoſe of Britain, but they are now aboliſhed; the privy-council has no other buſineſs than to prepare matters for the inſpection of the cabinet-council, in which the whole power reſides. This conſiſts only of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more appointed by the king. The higheſt tribunal in the kingdom is the court of Caſtile; thoſe of Galicia, Seville, the Canaries, Majorca, Valencia, Saragoſſa, and Barcelona are the courts of royal audience, and have a power of ultimately judging within 15 miles of their reſpective cities. The American colonies are under the juriſdiction of viceroys, who, being at ſuch a diſtance from any ſuperior authority, often act in a very deſpotic and arbitrary manner. The viceroys of Mexico and Peru are ſo powerful, that they are ſeldom allowed to continue in their offices longer than three or four years, in which time it is ſuppoſed that they may have made ſufficient fortunes. The crown of Spain is hereditary, females being capable of ſucceſſion; and it is even ſaid, that the king may by will transfer the ſucceſſion to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. Beſides the colonies in South America, and the poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, the king of Spain has the cities of Ceuta, Gran, and Muſulquivir on the coaſt of Barbary.

Revenues. Notwithſtanding the immenſe quantity of gold and ſilver brought from the American continent, of which the king is entitled to one fifth part, matters are managed in ſuch a manner that very little of it is brought into his coffers. From his European territories he draws a revenue, according to ſome, of five, according to others, of eight millions ſterling. In caſe of war, or any other emergency, he will make free with the American treaſure belonging to his ſubjects; but this they never find fault with, as being always punctually repaid. The Spaniſh finances, were, in the time of the late king, put upon a much better footing than formerly. The ſources of the Spaniſh revenue are taxes laid upon goods, houſes, proviſions, timber, lands, &c.; but in ſuch an arbitrary and vague manner, that no account of them can be given.

Military Strength by Sea and Land. For a long time paſt the Spaniſh navy has made a very inconſiderable figure. In the time of the late war betwixt Britain and America, ſome pains was taken to put it upon a more reſpectable footing; though from the event of ſuch encounters as happened betwixt the Britiſh and Spaniſh fleets, it ſeems very improbable that there can be any kind of equality between the two nations. The Spaniards, however, ſtill continued to augment their marine, and the grand fleet now conſiſts of more than 70 ſhips of the line. The

army,

army, in time of peace, conſiſts of 70,000 men, and, in time of war, upwards of 110,000 can be raiſed; but the king places his principal dependence upon his Walloon, or foreign guards. All along the coaſt there are watch-towers, with lights and guards, at the diſtance only of a mile from each other; ſo that the whole kingdom would be very ſpeedily alarmed in caſe of any foreign invaſion.

Arms. Theſe are a ſhield divided into four quarters; the uppermoſt on the right hand, and the lowermoſt on the left containing a caſtle, or, with three towers, for Caſtile; and in the uppermoſt on the left and loweſt on the right are three lions gules for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

Royal Titles and Nobility. Formerly the kingdom was divided into twelve, each of which, with ſeveral others, conferred a title upon the king, amounting in all to 32. Now, however, he is generally content with the title of His Catholic Majeſty; though upon occaſion, the whole number of titles are brought forth in parade. In ſigning any public inſtrument, he ſubſcribes himſelf, "I the king," without mentioning his name. No ceremony of coronation is made uſe of; but the Spaniſh monarchs are inaugurated with the ſword of ſtate. The eldeſt ſon of the king is ſtiled the prince of Aſturia, and the younger children of both ſexes *Infants* and *Infantas*. The nobility and gentry, if unmixed with the Mooriſh race, are ſtiled *Hidalgoes*, and are divided into princes, marquiſſes, counts, viſcounts, &c. The grandees have the privilege of appearing covered before the king, and cannot be apprehended on any account without his expreſs order. The honour of being covered in the king's preſence, however, they ſhare in common with the cardinals, archbiſhops, ambaſſadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, &c.

Orders of Knighthood. Of theſe the Order of the Golden Fleece is the moſt honourable, and of this we have already given a full account when treating of Germany. It is generally conferred only upon ſovereign dukes or princes, though ſeveral French and Italian nobility have been admitted.

The next in dignity to the Golden Fleece is the Order of St Jago de Compoſtella, or St James, and it is reckoned the richeſt in Spain. It is highly eſteemed, and conferred only upon thoſe of noble extraction. It was formerly divided into two branches, each of which had their own grand maſter; but Pope Alexander VI. conferred the offices in perpetuity on the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand maſters of the knights in their reſpective dominions.

The Order of Calatrava took its title from the caſtle of that name when taken from the Moors by Sancho king of Toledo, who firſt inſtituted it upon that occaſion. In proceſs of time, the knights became ſo numerous, powerful, and wealthy, that they excited the jealouſy of the crown, and the office of grand maſter, revenues, &c. were at length annexed to it by Pope Innocent VIII.

The Order of Alcantara was originally called that of St Julian, or of the pear-tree; but its name was changed on occaſion of taking Alcantara from the Moors. It is very much eſteemed, and conferred only on thoſe who can boaſt of an ancient and illuſtrious family.

The Order of the Lady of Mercy is poſſeſſed of conſiderable revenues. It was firſt inſtituted in the year 1218 by James I. king of Arragon, on account of a vow made by him at that time when a captive in France. It was deſigned for the redemption of captives taken by the Moors, in

which the knights expended conſiderable ſums. It was at firſt beſtowed only upon men; but a lady of Barcelona had intereſt enough to get women admitted alſo.

The Order of Monteſa is ſo called from the knights having choſen that town for their principal place of reſidence. It was inſtituted at Valencia, towards the end of the 13th century, inſtead of the Templars, and obtained their poſſeſſions. It has St George for its patron.

Laſtly, in 1771, the late king inſtituted the Order of Charles III. in commemoration of the birth of a prince; and it is conferred only upon perſons of high quality. The badge is a ſtar of eight points, enamelled white, and edged with gold; in the centre of the croſs is the image of the Virgin Mary with white and blue veſtments; on the reverſe the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre; with the motto *Virtuti et Merito.*

Hiſtory. The Spaniſh hiſtorians derive the origin of their nation from Tubal the fifth ſon of Japhet, and aſſert that the country was governed by kings for no leſs a ſpace than 2226 years before the Celtes came into it; though the latter have been commonly looked upon to be the founders of this monarchy. Before the coming of the Carthaginians into the country, however, we know nothing certain concerning the tranſactions of the inhabitants. The Carthaginians had not long been ſettled in Spain before they engaged in a war with the Romans, which at that time effectually checked their progreſs. They had not indeed made any great progreſs in the conqueſt of the country, though they poſſeſſed conſiderable territories there; but after the concluſion of the firſt Punic war, a ſcheme was laid by Hamilcar Barcas for ſubduing the whole country, by which means he hoped to make Carthage equal to Rome, and be able to ſtand in the conteſt, which he was very ſure would deſtroy one of the republics. This ſcheme he eagerly proſecuted during his whole life-time; but was at laſt killed in battle with ſome of the barbarous nations with whom the country was at that time ſettled. His ſucceſſor, Aſdrubal, made farther progreſs; but the Romans perceiving the point which thoſe two generals wiſhed to gain, inſiſted that Aſdrubal ſhould not attempt any conqueſt beyond the river Iberus, now the Ebro. Aſdrubal, who was of a more mild and pliant temper than Hamilcar, ſigned this treaty, and kept it faithfully; but it was otherwiſe with Hannibal his ſucceſſor. This young hero, inflamed with hatred againſt the Romans, and conſcious that, if properly ſupported by his countrymen, he could humble their haughty republic, puſhed on his conqueſts in Spain, over ran and ſubdued great part of the country with rapidity, and ſoon began to make infringements on the treaty concluded with Aſdrubal above-mentioned. The city of Saguntum, a faithful ally of the Romans, was deſtroyed, after which Hannibal, purſuing his ſcheme with all imaginable vigour, left the country altogether in order to invade Italy. The unfortunate event of his enterpriſe there is well known; and the conſequence was, that the Carthaginians were finally expelled from Spain, and bound by treaty never more to attempt any ſettlement in the country.

At the time of the Roman conqueſt, Spain was ſtill extremely rich, though immenſe quantities of ſilver had been carried out of it by the Carthaginians and Tyrians. In the very early ages indeed, its riches far exceeded any thing of which we have an account, even of the moſt wealthy part of America itſelf. We are informed by Ariſtotle, that

that when the Phœnicians firſt arrived here, they met with ſuch quantities of ſilver, that their ſhips could neither contain nor carry it, though they uſed it as ballaſt, and even made their anchors and other ſhip utenſils of it. At the time the Carthaginians arrived, the quantity of this metal was not at all diminiſhed, as the inhabitants made their moſt common utenſils, and even the mangers for their cattle of it; but by the continual conſumption of it by that avaricious nation, even theſe immenſe quantities were at laſt exhauſted. The Romans, therefore, no leſs avaricious than their predeceſſors, could not ſatiate themſelves with ſuch treaſures as the Carthaginians and Tyrians had obtained: in nine years, however, they carried off 111,542 pounds weight of ſilver, and 4095 pounds of gold, beſides a vaſt quantity of the precious metals ready coined, and other valuable articles. The Spaniards ſeem to have reſented the Roman invaſion more than that of the Carthaginians, at leaſt if we may judge by the violent reſiſtance they made to them. The Romans indeed, penetrated farther into the country than the Carthaginians had done, and thus arrived among nations who, being unaccuſtomed to a foreign yoke, were perhaps more jealous of their liberties than the others.

The nations who ſhowed the greateſt oppoſition to the Roman power were the Cantabrians and Aſturians; but before any formal conteſt happened with them, one Viriathus a celebrated hunter, and who, for ſome time had been captain of a gang of banditti, having entered into an alliance with ſome of the nations who had aſſiſted Carthage in the war with Rome, ventured to ſet up for himſelf, and oppoſe the whole power of the empire. His new kingdom was erected in that diviſion of Spain, formerly called Luſitania, partly anſwering to the modern kingdom of Portugal. A Roman general, named Vetilius, who marched againſt him with 10,000 men, was defeated and killed with the loſs 4000 of his men. Another was diſpatched againſt him with 10,000 foot and 1300 horſe; but Viriathus having found means to cut off a body of 4000 of them, ſoon brought the reſt to an engagement, and entirely defeated them. A third army was ſent againſt him, but met with the ſame fate. A conſul, named Quintius Fabius, gained conſiderable advantages over him, and he was reduced to great ſtraits by Metellus; but all theſe misfortunes were counterbalanced by the aſſiſtance given him by the inhabitants of Termantia and Numantia, who had hitherto been in alliance with Rome, but now declared war againſt that republic. The cauſe of this was, an imprudent and haughty demand of the conſul Pompeius, who not content with the friendſhip of theſe people, inſiſted on their delivering up their arms. This produced an immediate war, in which the Romans were repulſed with great loſs, both before Numantia and Termantia, while another army was ſurrounded on all ſides by Viriathus, and the commander obliged to make peace with him, upon condition that he ſhould be allowed to keep poſſeſſion of all the teritories he had conquered.

Though this peace was confirmed by the ſenate and people of Rome, it was not long before it was broken on their part, without any provocation from Viriathus. The Luſitanian, finding himſelf preſſed by a ſuperior army, endeavoured to procure an accommodation; but the Roman general, determined to poſſeſs himſelf of his dominions, and at the ſame time dreading his valour and military ſkill, cauſed him to be privately murdered. A new attempt was in the mean time made

againſt

againſt the Termantines and Numantines. The Roman general Pompeius attempted to reduce the latter, by turning aſide the courſe of the river Durius, now the Douro, by which it was ſupplied with water; but in this he loſt ſuch numbers of his men, that he was obliged to abandon the enterpriſe, and conclude a peace with the enemy upon much worſe terms than they had offered of their own accord. Soon after the death of Viriathus, the Romans, with their uſual treachery, ordered the conſul Popilius to break the peace which had been concluded with the Numantines. He did ſo, but paid dear for his perfidy; for the Numantines, ſallying out upon him, put to flight the whole Roman army with ſuch ſlaughter, that they were rendered incapable of action during the remainder of the campaign. His ſucceſſor Mancinus was attended with ſtill worſe ſucceſs; for the Numantines, with only 4000 men, fell upon the Roman army conſiſting of 30,000, with ſuch fury, that they were utterly defeated, and 20,000 killed in the field of battle, or in the purſuit; the remaining 10,000 being alſo cooped up in ſuch a manner, that they could neither advance nor retreat. In this ſituation they muſt all have been either killed or taken, had not the Numantines, with a generoſity unknown to their adverſaries, ſet the remains of the army at liberty, on condition that they ſhould now ſuffer them to live in peace. The conſul promiſed this very readily, but found himſelf unable to keep his word; for the ſenate not only refuſed to confirm the peace he had made, but ordered him to be laid down bound before the city of Numantia, as if the delivering up the unfortunate general could make amends for their own treachery. The Numantines, however, were not to be impoſed upon in this manner. They refuſed to accept of the general unleſs he had along with him the 10,000 men whom they formerly releaſed. He was allowed to lie on the ground for a whole day, when his ſucceſſor thinking the Numantines had got a ſufficient recompenſe for the treachery of the Romans, received the conſul into their camp again, and declared war. He did not however chuſe to engage ſuch deſperate enemies himſelf, and the Numantines were thus allowed to enjoy their liberty till the year 133 B. C. when Scipio Æmilianus, who had ſignalized himſelf by the deſtruction of Carthage, was ſent againſt them. The firſt care of this general was to introduce proper diſcipline among his ſoldiers, which under his predeceſſors had been greatly relaxed; by which means he got them at laſt to face their enemies, though on his firſt arrival in Spain they had abſolutely refuſed to do ſo. He then ravaged the country all round the town, and having blocked it up on every ſide, the unhappy Numantines ſoon began to feel the want of proviſions. At laſt they reſolved by one deſperate effort either to break through their enemies and obtain their liberty, or periſh at once. With this view they marched out at two different gates, and fell upon the works of the Romans with the utmoſt fury. The latter were on the point of yielding, when Scipio haſtened to their relief with no fewer than 20,000 men; by whom the unhappy Numantines, oppreſſed by ſuch an immenſe ſuperiority of numbers, were at laſt driven back into the city. Here they endured the miſeries of famine for ſome time longer, but at laſt it was reſolved by the majority to ſubmit to the will of the Romans. This reſolution, however, was not univerſally approved; many ſhut themſelves up in their houſes, and choſe to die for hunger, while even thoſe who had offered to ſurrender repented they had done ſo, and ſetting fire to their houſes, periſhed at once in the flames, with their wives

wives and children, ſo that not a ſingle perſon was left alive to adorn the triumph of the conqueror.

After this barbarous conqueſt, moſt of Spain ſubmitted to the Romans without any farther reſiſtance; though, when occaſion ſerved, the people ſhewed always a remarkable inclination to revolt. In the invaſion of the Cimbri, a Roman army of 80,000 men was entirely cut off by the Luſitanians, and in the civil wars between Sylla and Marius, a republic was ſet up in this country, which ſeemed capable of maintaining its ground againſt the utmoſt efforts of the Roman power. The founder of this new ſtate was one Sertorius, who appears to have been indiſputably the beſt general of his age. Having ſided with Marius in the civil diſſentions which took place at Rome, he was obliged to fly from that city on the prevalency of the oppoſite party, by whom he was proſcribed. Marius, in the time of his power, had appointed Sylla prætor of Spain, and he now took the opportunity of retiring to his province; but no ſooner was it known to Sylla that he had arrived in that country, than he ſent a general named C. Annius to expel him. Sertorius diſpatched a body of 6000 men to guard the paſſes of the Pyrenees; but their general being murdered by aſſaſſins hired by the Romans, Sertorius himſelf was obliged to embark for the coaſt of Africa, with his whole remaining army, now reduced to 3000 men. With theſe he landed in Mauritania, where many of them were cut off by the Barbarians, on which Sertorius ſet ſail for Spain. The whole of the Spaniſh coaſt, however, was now ſo well guarded by the troops of his rival, that Sertorius was once more obliged to put to ſea, without knowing where to direct his courſe. During his voyage he fell in with a ſmall fleet of Cilician pirates, whom having joined, they made a deſcent on the iſland of Yvica, and carried off a conſiderable booty. Annius, on hearing this, ſet ſail in queſt of Sertorius with a conſiderable ſquadron. The latter, though inferior in ſtrength, did not decline an engagement, but it was prevented by a violent ſtorm, which daſhed moſt of Sertorius's fleet in pieces. The tempeſt being ſomewhat abated, Sertorius, with the ſcattered remains of his fleet, paſſed the ſtraits of Gades, now Gibralter, and landed in Spain near the mouth of the river Bætis. Here he met with ſome ſailors lately arrived from the Canary or Fortunate Iſlands; and from theſe he received ſuch a favourable account of that country, that he determined to ſail for them, and ſpend the remainder of his days in peace and quiet. The pirates, diſliking this ſcheme, abandoned him entirely, and ſailed for Africa with a view to aſſiſt one of the barbarous princes who was at variance with another. Sertorius ſailed thither alſo, but took the oppoſite ſide, and having overcome the king, named *Aſcalis*, obliged him to ſhut himſelf up in the city of Tingis, now Tangier, to which he immediately laid cloſe ſiege. While thus employed, a Roman general named Pacianus, advanced againſt him by orders from Sylla, with a great army. Him he defeated and killed, obliging the remainder of his army to ſurrender at diſcretion. Thus his reputation became ſo great, that he ſoon received an invitation from the Luſitanians to aſſiſt them againſt Annius, from whom they apprehended a new war. With this requeſt he very readily complied, and, being put at the head of their armies, ſoon became terrible to the Romans. He was firſt oppoſed by Titus Didius, whom he entirely defeated. Metellus, looked upon to be one of the beſt generals Rome could at that time produce, was next ſent againſt him, but with all

all his valour and experience he found himſelf overmatched by Sertorius. Some other generals were ſent againſt him by Metellus, but they were ſo totally defeated, that Sertorius was joined by great numbers of the moſt illuſtrious citizens of Rome, whom the cruelty of Sylla had expelled from their native country. With theſe he formed a deſign of erecting Luſitania into a republic, in oppoſition to that of Rome, and from the exploits he performed, there is no reaſon to doubt that the ſcheme was practicable. Metellus himſelf now became diſcouraged, and having, as is uſual with unfortunate generals, fallen into contempt with his own party, determined to ſignalize himſelf, and retrieve his reputation by the taking of Lacobriga, a conſiderable city of theſe parts. This he hoped to have reduced in two days, as there was but one well in the place; but before his arrival Sertorius had thrown in a large ſupply of water, ſo that Metellus, inſtead of taking the city, began in no long time to find himſelf diſtreſſed for want of proviſions. On this he ſent out a detachment of 6000 men to procure a new ſupply; but they were ſo completely cut off by Sertorius, that only the commanding officer eſcaped to relate the misfortune of the reſt.

Metellus was now obliged to raiſe the ſiege with diſgrace, and Sertorius applied himſelf to the civilization of his ſubjects, in which he made great progreſs, and eſtabliſhed his power on the moſt ſolid foundation. But, in the mean time, the Romans, alarmed at his progreſs, determined to ſubdue him at all events; and the greateſt generals of the republic were ambitious of acting againſt ſuch a formidable adverſary. At laſt the command was given to Pompey the Great, but without recalling Metellus; ſo that Sertorius had the two greateſt generals in Rome to cope with at once. In this, however, he now received a very conſiderable aſſiſtance by the deſertion of a whole army of Romans, no fewer than 33,000 in number, who, to a man, left the ſtandard of their general, and joined that of Sertorius. Theſe had been commanded by one Perpenna, or Perperna, who came into Spain to ſettle as the former had done. Being deſcended from one of the firſt families of Rome, his pride would not allow him to ſerve under Sertorius; but his inferiority in military ſkill was ſo evident, that his ſoldiers with one voice told him, they would ſerve none but a general who could defend himſelf; ſoon after which they deſerted him, as has been already mentioned, and their general was at laſt obliged to ſerve under Sertorius as a ſubaltern. With this powerful reinforcement Sertorius found himſelf in a capacity to foil the attempts of both theſe able generals. On the arrival of Pompey, ſome of his allies had begun to waver in their fidelity; on which he determined to convince them that it was not in the power of that general, any more than of Metellus, to ſcreen them from his reſentment. With this view he laid ſiege to the ſtrong town of Lauron, now Lirias, though Pompey was in the neighbourhood with a conſiderable army. The city was no ſooner inveſted therefore than the latter approached with all his forces, as if he deſigned to fall upon the lines of Sertorius, and even ſent intelligence to the garriſon, that the ſiege would ſoon be raiſed with diſgrace on the part of the aſſailants. Sertorius, however, had concealed a detachment of 6000 men among the mountains, to whom he ſent orders to come down and fall upon the rear of the Romans, if they ſhould make any attempts. Thus Pompey was obliged to ſit ſtill and ſee the city taken and burnt, to which he had promiſed ſuch certain and ſpeedy relief. In an engagement which happen-

ed ſoon after, he was defeated, and in moſt imminent danger, firſt of being killed, and then of being taken priſoner. A ſecond engagement proved equally unfortunate; and, in ſhort, ſo violently were both commanders haraſſed by the efforts of Sertorius, that they were obliged to ſeparate, the one going into Gaul, the other retiring to the foot of the Pyrenees. In this manner Sertorius continued to make head againſt the Romans for almoſt 10 years, when he was at laſt treacherouſly murdered by Perperna at an entertainment. The traitor did not long enjoy the fruits of his wickedneſs; for Pompey no ſooner heard of the death of Sertorius, than he marched againſt Perperna, defeated and took him priſoner, and cauſed him to be executed ſoon after.

The death of Sertorius, which happened about the year 73 B. C. put an end at that time to all attempts of the Spaniards againſt the Romans. Still, however, they remained very impatient of the yoke, eſpecially the Cantabrians and Aſturians, who ſeem to have been the moſt powerful nations in the country. The fate of theſe was ſomewhat ſimilar to that of Numantia; for, having often defeated the Romans, they were at laſt overpowered and almoſt exterminated by dint of ſuperior numbers and diſcipline. This happened in the time of Auguſtus, by whoſe general, Agrippa, the whole extent of the Spaniſh continent was ſubdued, and the inhabitants continued ever after in quiet ſubjection to their maſters. On the decline of the empire this province was overrun by the Goths and other barbarous nations; and as the people had now loſt their ancient valour, theſe met with little difficulty in ſettling themſelves where they thought proper. In the year 444, the Romans made a laſt effort to recover their power in Spain; but being utterly defeated by the Suevians, the latter eſtabliſhed a kingdom there, which continued for about 140 years, when it was overthrown by the Viſigoths under Leovigilde. The Goths continued maſters of the country till the beginning of the eighth century, when they were ſubdued by the Saracens. For ſome time the emperors of Conſtantinople had poſſeſſed part of Spain; but the Gothic princes had not only entirely deprived them of theſe poſſeſſions, but made conſiderable conqueſts in Barbary. The Saracens firſt entered Spain from the coaſt of Africa, where they had made conſiderable conqueſts, about the year 711 or 712. The reigning prince at that time, named Roderic, had diſguſted his ſubjects by his bad conduct; for which reaſon he determined to put the whole event of the war to the iſſue of a battle; as well knowing that he could not depend upon the fidelity of his ſubjects if the two armies were allowed to remain long in the neighbourhood of each other. A battle enſued in a plain near Xeres in Andaluſia, where the Goths were defeated with ſuch ſlaughter, that they could no more make head againſt their enemies at that time. The king was ſuppoſed to have been killed in the engagement, as he was never more heard of; the Saracens ſoon became maſters of all Spain, while the remaining Goths were driven to the mountainous parts of Aſturias, Burgos, and Biſcay; moſt of the inhabitants of Arragon, Navarre, and Catalonia retired into France.

Conqueſt of Spain by the Saracens.

Though by this ſignal victory the Goths appeared to have been totally ſubdued, the power of their adverſaries did not long continue unoppoſed. In no longer time than ſix years after the Saracen conqueſt, a new Gothic kingdom was erected. The founder of this was Don Pelagio, or Pelayo,

Reviſal of the Spaniſh power.

a prince of the blood-royal, who headed thoſe that had eſcaped from the battle of Xeres. At firſt his territories were very inconſiderable, extending only nine miles in length, and four in breadth, and ſituated in the province of Liebana in Aſturias. He was enabled to defend this inconſiderable ſpot againſt the numberleſs forces of his adverſaries by its difficult ſituation amongſt high and almoſt inacceſſible mountains, where an handful of men could withſtand an army. The Saracens reſolved to attack him before he could properly eſtabliſh himſelf, and one Alchaman was ſent with a vaſt army againſt him. The number of Don Pelagio's army was by no means contemptible; every one in his dominions capable of bearing arms being a ſoldier. He did not, however, chooſe to engage the Saracens in the open field; but having divided his forces, he poſted himſelf with one part in a cavern, concealing the reſt among the mountains, with orders to fall upon the Saracens as ſoon as they ſaw him attacked. The king's orders were punctually executed; though before his men could come up, the enemy had been repulſed, owing to a miracle wrought, as is ſaid, in favour of the Spaniards. The whole Spaniſh forces now attacked their diſordered enemies, making ſuch a terrible havock, that 124,000 Saracens are ſaid to have periſhed on that day. Their misfortunes did not end with this dreadful ſlaughter. The remainder, having fled till they were ſtopped by a river, began to direct their courſe along its banks; but in their progreſs this way, part of a mountain ſuddenly tumbling down, choaked up the channel of the river, in ſuch a manner, that it roſe into a lake, in which moſt of thoſe who had not been cruſhed by the falling of the mountain were drowned. A ſecond attempt of the Moors * was attended with no better ſucceſs; their army being almoſt entirely deſtroyed. On this they allowed Don Pelagio to enjoy his mountainous territories in peace, while they directed their arms againſt France, where they expected more plunder. This enterprize, however, proved ſtill worſe than the former; for here they met with ſuch an overthrow from Charles Martel, the father of Pepin, that they never could recover their power in the weſtern parts of the world. Inteſtine diviſions now alſo began to prevail among them; and of theſe the Spaniſh princes availed themſelves ſo effectually, that in 745 almoſt the whole province of Galicia was recovered by Don Alonſo the Catholic, ſucceſſor and ſon-in-law to Pelagio. Next year the ſame prince invaded Leon and Caſtile, reduced Aſtorgas, Leon, Saldagna, Montes de Oca, Amaya, Alava, and many other places. In the ſucceeding year he puſhed his conqueſts as far as the frontiers of Portugal, and the year following he ravaged all the country as far as Caſtile. A great extent of flat country had now been acquired, which would have taken a greater force than Alonſo could ſpare for its defence. He therefore reſolved to make it an entire deſert; and accompliſhed his purpoſe by carrying off the Moors for ſlaves, and obliging the Chriſtians to ſettle in the other parts of his dominions. Gaining ſtrength conſiderably in a few years, however, he again allowed his ſubjects to occupy part of the flat country, and to rebuild Leon and Aſtorgas, which he had demoliſhed. In the reign of his ſon, Don Froila, the Moors in Spain threw off the yoke of the khaliff entirely, and eſtabliſhed a ſovereignty of their own, under one Abdelrahman, who fixed the ſeat of his government at Cordova. This prince was attended with no better ſucceſs than the lieutenants

* The Saracens had this name becauſe of their invading Spain from Barbary, the ancient Mauritania, whoſe inhabitants were called *Mauri*.

lieutenants of the khalif; Froila defeated his troops with the loſs of 54,000 killed on the ſpot; and the general, with many thouſands of others, taken priſoners. Soon after this victory, Froila built the city of Oviedo, which he made the place of his reſidence, that he might be the better able to defend the flat country.

Origin of the kingdom of Navarre.

The power of the Saracens began now to decline every where. In 758, the kingdom of Navarre was erected. It is ſaid to have taken its riſe from an accidental meeting of 600 gentlemen at the tomb of an hermit named *John*, who had died among the Pyrenean mountains. At this meeting they took occaſion to converſe about the cruelty of the Moors, and the glory that would accrue to them by ſhaking off their yoke, which, they ſuppoſed, the ſtrength of their country might eaſily enable them to do. The propoſal having met with general approbation, one Don Garcia Ximenes was appointed king, on account of his illuſtrious birth and great abilities. He not only maintained his ground, but recovered the city of Ainſa, one of the principal places in the country, out of the hands of the Infidels; and his ſucceſſor Don Garcia Inigas extended his territories as far as Biſcay. In 778 another attack was made upon them by Charles the Great; but, notwithſtanding the proweſs of that renowned commander, he was not very ſucceſsful in this quarter. He puſhed his conqueſts indeed as far as the river Ebro, but was attacked and defeated by the Moors on his return, though he ſtill kept poſſeſſion of the places he had conquered. It does not appear whether the kingdom of Navarre was at this time ſubdued by force of arms, or whether it voluntarily ſubmitted to Charles. The latter opinion ſeems the more probable, as Charles certainly appears to have been maſter of it, and his ſucceſſors retained the ſovereignty till the year 831, when count Aznar, revolting from Pepin, ſon to the emperor Lewis, again aſſerted the independency of the country, though the ſovereigns did not aſſume the title of kings till the year 857.

The kingdom founded by Don Pelagio had received the title of that of Leon and Oviedo, and continued to increaſe rapidly in ſtrength, and become every day more formidable to the Moors. The latter, however, gained a great victory in the year 921 over the united forces of Caſtile and Leon; and ſuch was the deſtruction of the Chriſtians at that time, that had the conquerors behaved with the ſmalleſt degree of prudence, they muſt have totally ſubdued them. Inſtead of this, however, they conducted themſelves in ſuch a manner, that their whole army was cut in pieces by the remains of thoſe they had conquered; after which the power of the Chriſtian princes became ſo great, that it is probable they muſt have ſoon prevailed, and expelled their adverſaries from the country entirely, had not a moſt extraordinary champion for their cauſe appeared. This was a general, named Mohammed Ebn Amir Almanzor, who being a man of great courage and military ſkill, and filled with an implacable hatred againſt the Chriſtian name, made war againſt them with unheard of fury. He is ſaid to have defeated them in 50 different engagements, and to have deſolated great part of their country; but having at laſt taken and demoliſhed the city of Compoſtella, and carried away from thence the gates of the church of St James, the action was looked upon to be ſo ſacrilegious, that it was ſuppoſed he could now no longer proſper. A flux, which happened to break out in his army, was looked upon to be an indication of divine vengeance; and the

ſuperſtitious Chriſtians, encouraged by his misfortune, and imagining themſelves favoured by heaven, fell upon his weakened troops with ſuch fury that nothing could withſtand them; while Almanzor, overcome with deſpair at ſeeing himſelf worſted by thoſe he had vanquiſhed ſo often, retired to Medina Cæli, where he ended his days by abſtinence, in the year 998.

Of the kingdom of Caſtile.

Notwithſtanding the check which this general had given to the progreſs of the Chriſtain arms, it would ſeem that they had ſtill continued to gain ground rather than the contrary; for now a new principality, viz. that of Caſtile, made its appearance. This was diſtinguiſhed into two parts, called the Old and New Caſtile, of which the former was recovered long before the other. It was ſeparated from Leon by ſome ſmall rivers on one ſide, and on the other was bounded by the Aſturias, Biſcay, and the province of Rioja. On the ſouth it had the mountains of Segovia and Avila; thus lying in the middle between the kingdoms of Leon, Oviedo, and Cordova. From this ſituation ſome of the Caſtilian nobility had long been enabled to preſerve their independence, even when the power of the Saracens was at its greateſt height; and in the year 884, one Rodriguez aſſumed the title of count of Caſtile, though it does not appear that he had either title or gift of territory from the king of Leon. By degrees, however, the territory of Caſtile fell entirely under the power of the kings of Leon and Oviedo; and, in 1035, Don Sanchez beſtowed it upon his eldeſt ſon Ferdinand, with the title of king; his ſucceſſors being called kings of Leon and Caſtile.

Of Arragon.

About the beginning of the 11th century, the kingdom of Arragon was ſet up; but of the infant ſtate of this we know much leſs than of any of the reſt. All that we can affirm for certain on this ſubject is, that in 1035, Don Sanchez the Great, king of Navarre, erected Arragon into a kingdom for his ſon Don Ramira. The new kingdom ſoon became very powerful; and about this time it appears that the whole continent of Spain was divided in the following manner. If we ſuppoſe a line drawn in an eaſt and weſt direction from the coaſts of Valencia, and a little below the mouth of the Douro, the country to the north of this line belonged to the Chriſtians, and all the reſt, being the largeſt and moſt valuable part, to the Moors. At this time, however, the diſſenſions of both parties among themſelves were ſo violent, that neither could get the better of the other. In real power, extent of territory and wealth, the Moors were undoubtedly much ſuperior to their antagoniſts, but among them almoſt every petty city was a kingdom; and as they ſupported one another very indifferently againſt the common enemy, they all fell under the dominion of the Chriſtians one after another. On the other hand, the Chriſtian princes, though they did not wage war againſt each other every day like the Moors, yet agreed ſo ill, that their adverſaries, had their matters been conducted with the ſmalleſt judgment, would undoubtedly have cruſhed them in a very ſhort time. As matters were circumſtanced, however, the Moors daily loſt ground. In 1080, the city of Toledo was taken by Alphonſo king of Caſtile; and about the ſame time Madrid, then but a ſmall place, fell alſo into the hands of the Chriſtians. Theſe conqueſts, however, at laſt awakened the Moors to a ſenſe of their danger; ſo that they not only entered into a general confederacy againſt the Chriſtians, but invited over Mahomet Ben Yuſef the

ſovereign

ſovereign of Barbary, to their aſſiſtance. He came accordingly, attended by an innumerable multitude of his people; but was defeated with prodigious ſlaughter, though the Chriſtians did not improve their victory as they might have done. The Moors were ſo far from being taught by theſe misfortunes to act with more prudence, that their diſſenſions became worſe than ever, and the conqueſts of the Chriſtians more rapid than before. In 1226, Don Ferdinand of Caſtile and Leon took the celebrated city of Cordova, the reſidence of the firſt Mooriſh kings, at the ſame time that James I. of Arragon diſpoſſeſſed them of the iſland of Majorca, and drove them out of Valencia. Two years after, the ſame prince made himſelf maſter of Murcia, and took the city of Seville; and in 1303, Ferdinand IV. reduced Gibraltar.

In this century the Engliſh for the firſt time had an interference with the Spaniſh affairs, on the following occaſion. In the year 1284, the kingdom of Navarre had been united by marriage to that of France; but in 1328, the kingdoms were ſeparated, though the ſovereigns continued to be related to each other. In 1350, the king of Navarre, though he had married a daughter of the French king, entered into an alliance with England againſt his father-in-law, and even perſuaded the dauphin to join in the aſſociation. The young prince, however, was ſoon made ſenſible of the iniquity of his connections, and readily promiſed to ſacrifice his aſſociates in order to make his own peace. By him therefore the king of Navarre himſelf, and ſome of the principal nobility who had entered into the conſpiracy, were betrayed to his father; the moſt obnoxious of whom were executed, and the king thrown into priſon. The Navarre party applied to England; king John of France was defeated and taken priſoner at Poictiers, and the dauphin took the adminiſtration of affairs upon him. A dreadful rebellion enſued, during which the king of Navarre eſcaped from priſon, and became leader of the malcontents. He behaved in this ſtation, however, ſo ill, that the French ſoon became weary of him, and he was obliged to content himſelf with his own territories. Here he was attacked by the French general, Bertrand du Gueſclin, one of the moſt accompliſhed officers of his time, and whom he could by no means withſtand. Being ſoon obliged to ſubmit to ſuch terms as king Charles thought proper to impoſe, a peace was concluded at Bretigni; but this was no ſooner done than a new ſcene of diſturbance appeared. This was occaſioned by the great number of military adventurers who had followed Edward into France, and knew not how to employ themſelves except in martial exploits. Though peace was concluded, therefore, they refuſed to lay down their arms, and aſſociating themſelves with the banditti, under the name of *Companies*, or *Companions*, became a terror to the whole country. As theſe were too numerous, and too well acquainted with military affairs to be ſubdued by force, Charles reſolved if poſſible to get them employed in other countries, and therefore took occaſion of the diſturbances now ariſen in Spain to get them ſent off there. At this time the throne of Caſtile was filled by a prince named *Peter*, of ſuch a wicked and bloodthirſty diſpoſition, that he had got the ſurname of *the Cruel*; and who made ſuch havock, that his natural brother, Henry count of Traſtamara, was driven into rebellion againſt him. He failed in the attempt, however, and fled into France, where he was well received; and as Peter, among his other enormities, had murdered his queen, who was of the blood-royal of France, Henry found the court very much diſpoſed to

aſſiſt

aſſiſt him. The favourable opportunity of now getting clear of the *Companions* was not loſt. A treaty was ſoon concluded, by which they agreed to aſſiſt Henry, and the celebrated du Gueſclin was put at their head. This warrior found himſelf in a ſtrange ſituation, being at the head of a band of ruffians whom the Pope had excommunicated, and what was worſe, without any money to pay them. To remedy both theſe evils at once, he marched to Avignon, where the Pope then reſided, and, ſword in hand, demanded abſolution for his ſoldiers, and 200,000 livres to pay them. The abſolution was readily granted, but the money created ſome difficulties. Gueſclin, however, replied, that though his army might do without abſolution, the money could by no means be wanted; on which the Pope and cardinals extorted 100,000 livres from the neighbouring people, and offered it to Gueſclin; "It is not my intention," cried that veteran, "to oppreſs innocent people. The Pope and his cardinals can ſpare me double the ſum from their own pockets. I therefore inſiſt that this money be reſtored to the owners; and if I hear that they are defrauded of it, I will myſelf return from the other ſide of the Pyrenees, and oblige you to make them reſtitution." On this the Pope, with the cardinals there preſent, thought proper to advance the money; Gueſclin proceeded with his ſoldiers; Peter was driven from his throne, and took refuge in Guienne, where he implored the protection of the prince of Wales, at that time in France. By his aſſiſtance the fortune of the war was entirely changed. The valour and experience of Gueſclin was unable to preſerve his troops from a total defeat, in which he himſelf, with a great number of officers of diſtinction, were taken priſoners; but it muſt be obſerved, that before this time moſt of the *Companions* had deſerted his ſtandard, on hearing that they were to fight againſt the prince of Wales. The latter, however, ſoon repented of his connection with ſuch an infamous perſon as the king of Caſtile; and having therefore abandoned his cauſe, the malcontents aſſaulted him with more fury than ever. Henry returned along with Gueſclin, and a new army from France; while the tyrant, no longer ſupported by the prince of Wales, was defeated, taken priſoner, and put to death; and Henry, though a baſtard, raiſed to the throne.

From this time to the year 1454, the Spaniſh hiſtory affords no particulars of much conſequence; but now a moſt remarkable revolution took place, which tended, more than any thing that had yet happened, to the aggrandizement of the Spaniſh monarchy. At this time the throne of Caſtile was poſſeſſed by a moſt effeminate and debauched prince, named Henry, and ſurnamed *the Impotent*, though continually ſurrounded with women, and living openly with a number of miſtreſſes. His conduct became at laſt ſo flagitious, that it could no longer be borne, and it was reſolved to depoſe him in the moſt formal manner. This taſk was undertaken by the archbiſhop of Toledo, with the concurrence of the nobility, who looked upon themſelves to have a privilege of judging the ſovereign as they thought proper. The depoſition was executed in a manner unprecedented in hiſtory. A general meeting of the diſcontented nobility was ſummoned at Avila, in a ſpacious theatre erected without the walls of the town; an image of the king was ſeated on a throne, clad in royal robes, with a crown on its head, a ſceptre in its hand, and the ſword of juſtice by its ſide. The accuſation againſt Henry was read, and the ſentence of depoſition pronounced in preſence of a numerous aſſembly. At the cloſe of the firſt article of the charge, the archbiſhop

archbiſhop of Toledo advanced, and tore the crown from the head of the image; at the cloſe of the ſecond, the Conde de Placentia advanced, and ſnatched the ſword of juſtice from its ſide; at the cloſe of the third, the Conde de Benavente wreſted the ſceptre from its hand; and at the cloſe of the laſt, Don Diego Lopez de Stuniga tumbled it headlong from the throne; and the ſame inſtant, Don Alphonſo, Henry's brother, a boy of about 12 years of age, was proclaimed king in his ſtead. This tranſaction was followed by a civil war, which continued during the whole life-time of the young king Don Alphonſo, after which it was continued in the name of Iſabella the king's ſiſter, whom they ſtiled the Infanta, to the prejudice of the king's daughter, affirming the latter to be illegitimate. Henry at laſt was obliged to declare Iſabella to be the only lawful heireſs to the crown of Caſtile. The next object of the nobility was the marriage of this princeſs, who ſoon had ſeveral ſuitors. She preferred Ferdinand, ſon to the king of Arragon, who had alſo been the choice of the nobility; and by this, exaſperated Henry more than ever. He now diſinherited Iſabella, and declared his reputed daughter to be the only lawful heireſs. A violent civil war took place, and though the king was at length reconciled to Iſabella and her huſband, he never more renewed her rights to the crown. On the contrary, he declared, with his dying breath, that he believed the princeſs Joan to be his own daughter, and the queen alſo ſwore to the ſame purpoſe. After his death, however, the fortune of Iſabella and Ferdinand prevailed; and Joan was forced to abandon all thoughts of a crown, and retire into a convent; and after the death of Ferdinand's father, the kingdoms of Arragon and Sicily were added to thoſe of Leon and Caſtile.

The new ſovereigns were highly celebrated by their hiſtorians, on account of their prudent conduct in the adminiſtration of affairs. In other reſpects they ſeem to have poſſeſſed the greateſt indifference towards each other. They were frequently jealous of one another in political matters, and each retained the excluſive adminiſtration in their reſpective kingdoms; the only thing which ſeemed to unite them moſt cloſely was intereſt. In their reign, however, the kingdom was brought into a much better ſtate than it had formerly been. Rapine, robbery, and diſorder, were grown to ſuch an height, that not only commerce, but even all communication betwixt one place and another, were in a great meaſure ſuſpended. To ſuppreſs theſe crimes, Ferdinand and Iſabella revived an inſtitution of the 13th century, termed the Holy Brotherhood, whoſe efficacy in ſuppreſſing thoſe crimes had been already tried. This took its riſe from an aſſociation of the cities in the kingdom of Arragon, and afterwards in that of Caſtile. A certain contribution was exacted from each of the aſſociated towns; and they levied troops in order to protect travellers and purſue criminals; appointing judges alſo to hold courts in various parts of the kingdom. Whoever was guilty of murder, robbery, or any other violation of the public peace, was ſeized by the troops of the Brotherhood, carried before their judges, and tried without regard to the local juriſdiction of any perſon whatever. This inſtitution, was complained of by the nobles, who attempted to get it aboliſhed; but Ferdinand and Iſabella, ſenſible of the advantages to be derived from it, countenanced and ſupported it with the whole weight of their authority; and to this in a great meaſure was owing the reſtoration of the tranquillity of the kingdom at the time we ſpeak of. Along with this ſalutary inſtitution, however,

however, the bloody Inquiſition with all its terrors was ſet up by the ſame ſovereigns; and with ſuch fury were the firſt Inquiſitors actuated, that they burnt 6000 perſons within the firſt four years after the court was erected, and upwards of 100,000 ſuffered puniſhments of an inferior nature.

In political matters, the kingdom of Spain was now exalted beyond what it had ever been before. Granada alone remained to the Moors of all the ample poſſeſſions they had at once enjoyed in Spain, and of this Ferdinand reſolved to diſpoſſeſs them. The circumſtances of the times favoured his project; the Moors, who had from the beginning made war upon each other without intermiſſion, ſtill continued to do ſo, and thus daily to render their country a more eaſy prey to invaders. The arms of Ferdinand therefore prevailed, city after city was taken, and province after province reduced, until at laſt the conqueſt of the whole Mooriſh territories was completed by the taking of the city of Granada. This was now held by a Mooriſh prince named Abdali, who made a ſtout reſiſtance, but being at laſt cut off from all communication with the country, he was obliged to capitulate after a ſiege of eight months, on condition that he ſhould enjoy the revenue of certain places in the fertile plains of Alpujaros, that the inhabitants ſhould remain in the undiſturbed poſſeſſion of their houſes and goods, and have the free exerciſe of their religion.

Thus the empire of the Arabians in Spain was totally deſtroyed, after having continued more than 800 years. The full conqueſt of the kingdom of Granada was followed by the expulſion of the Jews, who had in a manner monopolized the commerce of the nation. Many of them, in order to ſave their wealth, pretended to embrace Chriſtianity, and numbers on that account were ſeverely tortured and put to death by the Inquiſitors. About this time a contract of marriage was concluded betwixt the princeſs Joan of Spain, and Philip, ſon to Maximilian, archduke of Auſtria, and ſovereign of the Netherlands. Thus began the connection between Spain and the Low Countries, which was afterwards productive of ſuch remarkable events. About the ſame time alſo the contract was made with Chriſtopher Columbus for the diſcovery of a nearer paſſage to the Eaſt Indies; the conſequence of which was the diſcovery of America. The particulars of this diſcovery, however, with the ſubſequent tranſactions, will be related when we come to treat of the ſouthern part of that continent.

On the death of Iſabella in 1506, Philip archduke of Auſtrias came to take poſſeſſion of his mother in-law's dominions, but dying ſoon after, the crown devolved on his ſon Charles V. afterwards emperor of Germany. As the new ſovereign, however, was at a diſtance, the nobility began to plot againſt him, and with this view diſputed the title of cardinal Ximenes to the regency, whom Ferdinand by his latter will had appointed to that office. The cardinal at firſt contented himſelf with ſhewing them the will of Ferdinand, and the ratification of it by Charles; but as this proved ineffectual, he at laſt ſhewed them a large body of armed men, with a formidable train of artillery, telling them, that theſe were the powers he had from his Catholic Majeſty; and that by them he was determined to govern the kingdom until the arrival of the lawful ſovereign. This he effectually performed, but met with a very ungrateful return; for, having, ſoon after the arrival of Charles, fallen into a dangerous diſorder, ſuppoſed to be the effect of poiſon, the

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courtiers made uſe of that opportunity to prejudice the ſovereign againſt him; ſo that on his recovery, he found himſelf neglected, and his advice ſlighted upon all occaſions. By this injurious tretament, added to his weak ſtate of health, the ſpirits of this miniſter were totally broken, and on receiving a letter from his majeſty diſmiſſing him from his ſervice, he was thrown into ſuch agitation that he died in a few hours.

The power of Charles was now ſo great, that he was looked upon to be the only Chriſtian potentate capable of oppoſing the power of the Turks, whoſe rapid conqueſt of Egypt had ſtruck all Europe with conſternation. This, together with the civil commotions which now raged in Germany, made him get the better of Francis I. in a conteſt for the dignity of emperor; but, no ſooner was this point gained, than an irreconcileable enmity took place betwixt him and that monarch. Both of them found it neceſſary to court the friendſhip of Henry VIII. of England, who at that time was a kind of umpire in the affairs of Europe. Charles paid a viſit to Henry in England, and Henry viſited Francis in France, afterwards paying a viſit to Charles at Gravelines in the Netherlands, and engaging him to accompany him to Calais. At theſe two interviews, the emperor entirely gained the friendſhip of Henry, though he had at firſt been rather attached to Francis. Being inveſted with the imperial crown at Aix la Chapelle, the firſt years of his reign were ſpent in attempting to overthrow the reformation, which about this time was begun in Germany; but finding this impoſſible, and his attention being indeed engaged in other affairs, he was obliged to drop that ſcheme, or at leaſt not to puſh it with vigour ſufficient to accompliſh the purpoſe. In his abſence, however, a revolt happened in Spain, which was eagerly laid hold of by Francis as an opportunity for erecting again the kingdom of Navarre, which the Spaniards had conquered. This was ſoon done by Andrew de Foix, a young French noblemen; but he having unfortunately invaded Spain, inſtead of ſecuring his new acquiſition, was not only driven out from thence, but loſt the whole territory of Navarre in a much ſhorter time than he had taken in ſubduing it. Hoſtilities now quickly took place in other quarters. The king of France encouraged the duke of Bouillon to make war upon the emperor, in return for which, Charles invaded France. Here he was defeated by the celebrated chevalier Bayard, and Francis in his turn invaded the Low Countries, but, through exceſs of caution, loſt an opportunity of cutting off the whole imperial army at once. A congreſs was afterwards held at Calais under the mediation of Henry, but it proved unſucceſsful, and the two parties became more than ever exaſperated againſt each other.

Charles, in his firſt viſit to England, had taken care to ſecure in his own intereſt cardinal Wolſey, the favourite miniſter of Henry VIII.; and through his intrigues a league was concluded between the Pope, Charles, and the king of England againſt Francis, and a ſcheme was formed of totally expelling the French from Italy. This was greatly promoted by the revolt of the Milaneſe, who had already taken a reſolution of driving them out of their territory on account of the tyranny of their governor. In conſequence of this they betrayed their city to the army of the allies; Parma and Placentia were united to the eccleſiaſtical ſtate; and, in ſhort, the French were quickly deprived of all their poſſeſſions in Italy, Cremona, and ſome other inconſiderable places alone excepted.

This unexpected and rapid ſucceſs occaſioned ſuch tranſports in the Pope, that he is ſaid to have died in a ſhort time after receiving the news. Francis, however, reſolved not to part with his Italian territories at ſuch a cheap rate, and therefore reinforced his army in ſuch a manner as to enable the general to act on the offenſive; but having unadviſedly attacked the camp of the Imperialiſts, he was repulſed with great loſs, after which his Swiſs auxiliaries deſerted him, and he was reduced to a ſtate of abſolute inaction. This was followed by the reduction of all the places which the French ſtill held in Italy, except the ſingle citadel of Cremona; and, to add to all theſe misfortunes, an Engliſh herald arrived in France with a denunciation of war from Henry.

Francis, ſurpriſed, though not terrified by this new danger, put his kingdom in a proper ſtate of defence in order to reſiſt Henry, while he purſued his ſchemes againſt the emperor, as though nothing had happened. Charles, however, had now loſt the friendſhip of Wolſey; who, in conſideration of his ſervices, had expected the papacy after the death of Leo; but Charles, who ſeems never to have been over grateful to thoſe who ſerved him, had beſtowed it upon his preceptor cardinal Adrian of Utrecht. To regain the favour of Wolſey, and confirm that of his maſter, Charles paid a ſecond viſit to England, where he ſoothed the cardinal by a promiſe of being Adrian's ſucceſſor, an event which ſeemed to be at no great diſtance, by reaſon of the age and infirmities of the Pontiff. With Henry he confirmed his alliance in the ſtrongeſt manner; and in conſequence of the negociations which took place at this interview, the earl of Surrey was ſent with an army into France.

The aſſiſtance of England, on which Charles had placed ſo much confidence, now turned out to be very trifling. Surrey was obliged to retire without making himſelf maſter of a ſingle fortified place in the kingdom, ſo that the emperor could only conſole himſelf with having quelled ſome tumults which happened in Spain during his abſence. But while theſe princes were thus virulently contending againſt each other, the liberties of Europe ſeemed to be really endangered by the Turks; who, under Solyman the Magnificent, invaded Hungary, took the city of Belgrade, and then reduced the iſland of Rhodes, notwithſtanding a moſt deſperate defence made by the knights. This for ſome little time put the contending powers to a ſtand. Charles and Francis were equally aſhamed of having occaſioned ſuch loſſes to Chriſtendom by their contentions; and the emperor, by way of reparation, granted the ſmall iſland of Malta to the knights after their expulſion from Rhodes; in which place they have maintained their ground ever ſince, in ſpite of the utmoſt efforts of their adverſaries. The Pope, however, was more ſeriouſly alarmed than any of the princes; and therefore ſtrove to the utmoſt of his power to make a reconciliation between them, in hopes that they might unite in a league againſt the common enemy, and recover the iſland of Rhodes. For this purpoſe he iſſued a bull, by which the belligerent powers were commanded to conſent to a truce for three years; while, in the mean time, the ambaſſadors from France, England, and Germany might meet at Rome, and conſider of ſome method to ſettle all differences in an amicable manner. This was accordingly done; but, while theſe negociations were going on, all parties continued their preparations for war. The negociations proved unſucceſsful; other negociations ſucceeded, and, like the former, ended without any good effect; ſo that the event of the whole was, that the confe-

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deracy againſt France became more formidable than ever. The Venetians, who had hitherto adhered to the French intereſt, formed engagements with the emperor for ſecuring Francis Sforza in the poſſeſſion of the duchy of Milan, which had been beſtowed upon him in conſequence of the expulſion of the French governor above mentioned; and the Pope, imagining that the ambition of Francis was the only obſtacle to a general pacification, acceded to the ſame alliance. The Florentines, the dukes of Ferrara, Mantua, and the reſt of the Italian powers, followed their example, ſo that Francis was left without a ſingle ally to reſiſt his numerous enemies. The emperor himſelf threatened France with an invaſion on one ſide, while the forces of England and the Low Countries menaced Picardy, and a powerful army of Germans threatened to invade Burgundy. Francis, however, continued ſtill undiſmayed; and before his adverſaries could attempt any thing againſt him, determined to invade Italy with a formidable army. This ſpirited meaſure would moſt probably have been ſucceſsful, had it not been fruſtrated by a dangerous conſpiracy, which obliged him to relinquiſh his deſign of heading the Italian army in perſon, and commit the execution of the enterpriſe to another. Admiral Bonivet, the perſon choſen for this purpoſe, being entirely unfit for the office, was driven from place to place by the Imperial generals, and at laſt defeated at Biegraſſa, where the famous chevalier de Bayard was killed. In their attempts on France itſelf, the Imperialiſts were leſs ſucceſsful, and Francis might have enjoyed his other dominions in quiet, if he could have abandoned the thoughts of Italy. Underſtanding, however, that the king of England had relinquiſhed his deſigns upon Picardy, he determined to march in perſon at the head of his army into Italy. This proved the moſt unfortunate adventure he had ever undertaken. His forces were defeated, and himſelf taken priſoner before the city of Pavia; almoſt the whole of his army was cut off; and, in a very ſhort time, not a Frenchman was to be ſeen in Italy. Charles received the news of his ſucceſs with the moſt hypocritical appearances of moderation: would ſuffer no public rejoicings to be made on its account; and ſaid that he regarded it only as he thought it would be of uſe in reſtoring peace to Chriſtendom. Francis had left the care of the kingdom to his mother Louiſa, who, in this deſperate emergency, behaved with uncommon fortitude. Inſtead of giving way to the emotions of maternal fondneſs and inquietude, ſhe took the moſt proper methods for putting the kingdom in a poſture of defence, and employed her utmoſt art to gain over the king of England to her ſide. This was was by no means difficult to be accompliſhed. Henry knew that it was his own intereſt not to allow the balance of power between Francis and Charles to be entirely broken. By his alliance with the latter, he hoped to recover ſome part of the Continental territories which had formerly belonged to England; but he had never expected ſuch a deciſive victory in favour of Charles as the battle of Pavia. Perceiving now, therefore, that it was neceſſary to have a counterpoiſe to his enormous power, he reſolved to aſſiſt France in the time of her great diſtreſs. He had alſo become diſguſted with the emperor on ſeveral accounts, and cardinal Wolſey ſtill more, by reaſon of a ſecond breach of promiſe with regard to the papacy. We have already remarked, that a promiſe had been made by Charles to place Wolſey in the papal chair, on the death of Adrian VI.; but in place of this, the cardinal de Medici was promoted

to this honour, by the name of Clement VII. The appearance of moderation which Charles had ſo eminently aſſumed on the firſt news of his victory was alſo very ill ſupported, and his haughtineſs on that account had become ſo manifeſt, that he had even changed his uſual ſtile of writing to Henry himſelf. For all theſe reaſons Henry determined to liſten to the propoſals of Louiſa, and, in conſequence of that determination, entered into an alliance with her as regent of the kingdom, and engaged to uſe his utmoſt endeavours to deliver her ſon from captivity.

Francis in the mean time was treated in the moſt ſevere manner, and ſuch conditions offered him, that he once drew his dagger, and pointing it to his breaſt, exclaimed, "It is better that a king ſhould die thus!" His hand was at that time held by the byſtanders, and the king, on cool reflection, ſuppoſing that ſuch ſcandalous propoſals could not come from the emperor himſelf, requeſted that he might be carried to Spain, where Charles had for a long time paſt reſided. This requeſt was complied with, but Francis found very little advantage from the removal. It was a long time before he was indulged with a ſight of his haughty conqueror; until at laſt Charles, fearing either that Francis might reſign the crown to his ſon, or that a general combination might be formed againſt him, thought proper to condeſcend to ſome more moderate terms. A treaty was concluded at Madrid, in conſequence of which the unfortunate monarch at laſt regained his liberty. The principal article of this treaty was, that Burgundy, which had of old belonged to the anceſtors of Charles, ſhould be reſtored to him, and that the two children of Francis ſhould be immediately delivered up as hoſtages for the performance of this article. But though Francis was obliged to ſubmit in appearance to this humiliating treaty, he never meant ſeriouſly to perform it; and he even left a proteſt in the hands of the notary who ſigned it, that his conſent was involuntary, and the deed of conſequence null and void. As ſoon as he arrived in France, therefore, he aſſembled the ſtates of Burgundy, who proteſted againſt the article relative to their province; and when the Imperial ambaſſadors urged the immediate execution of the treaty, Francis replied with great coolneſs, that he would religiouſly perform the articles relative to himſelf, but that he muſt be directed by the ſenſe of the nation in matters relative to the monarchy. By this declaration Charles and his miniſters were greatly chagrined, perceiving themſelves overcome in the very arts of duplicity and pretended negociation, in which they had imagined themſelves ſo much to excel; while the Italian ſtates were no leſs pleaſed to find that Francis would not put in execution a treaty which, they thought, would be dangerous to the liberties of Europe. The next ſtep was to get himſelf abſolved from the oath he had taken; and this was ſpeedily done by Pope Clement. A new aſſociation now took place; the kings of France and England, the Pope, the Swiſs, Venetians, Florentines, and the duke of Milan, all entered into a treaty, which they called the *Holy League*, on account of the Pope being at the head of it, and the object of which was to oblige the emperor to deliver up the two ſons of Francis upon the payment of a reaſonable ſum, and to ſettle Sforza in the quiet poſſeſſion of Milan. The confederate army ſoon took the field, and Italy was once more likely to become the ſcene of deſolation and ſlaughter; but Francis had now ſuffered ſo much, that he ſeemed diſinclined to proceed with that vigour which in the preſent circumſtances was neceſſary. Neglecting to

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ſend due reinforcements to the army in Italy, he allowed the Imperialiſts to gain the greateſt advantages. The duke of Bourbon had made himſelf maſter of the Milaneſe, of which he had been promiſed the inveſtiture by Charles; after which, finding his troops beginning to mutiny for want of pay, he led them to Rome, promiſing to gratify them with the ſpoils of that opulent metropolis. Bourbon himſelf was killed in the attack; but his ſoldiers, exaſperated by his death, ruſhed forward with ſuch fury that nothing could reſiſt them. The city was taken ſword in hand, and plundered in the moſt cruel manner for five days; inſomuch, that it is ſaid, the deſolations occaſioned by the Goths, Hunns, Vandals, and other barbarians, never equalled the ravages now made by the ſoldiers of a renowned Chriſtian and Catholic monarch. The news of the capture were received by Charles with his uſual hypocriſy. He expreſſed the utmoſt ſorrow for the ſucceſs with which his arms had been attended; put himſelf and court into deep mourning; and cauſed prayers to be put up for the recovery of the Pope's liberty, though he was detained in captivity by his own general, and he might have liberated him at any time by ſending an order for that purpoſe. Henry and Francis, however, were ſeriouſly alarmed at ſuch enormous inſtances of the proweſs and ſucceſs of Charles; and, even before the taking of Rome, had agreed to invade the Low Countries with a formidable army; but no ſooner were they informed of the reduction of that city, than they changed their minds, and ſent an army into Italy. This country, however, proved conſtantly fatal to the French cauſe; the army was almoſt entirely ruined, and Francis, wearied and exhauſted with ſo many defeats, determined at laſt to think ſeriouſly of peace, and to obtain the releaſe of his two ſons by fair means, rather than by the terror of his arms. Charles alſo was more inclined than uſual to accommodation at this time, on account of the progreſs of the Turks, who, having overrun all Hungary, were ready to invade the Auſtrian dominions; and the tranquillity of the empire was alſo endangered by the reformation which had now taken place in Germany. A treaty was therefore concluded at Cambray in 1529, where it was ſtipulated that Francis ſhould pay two millions of crowns by way of ranſom for his children; that he ſhould reſign the ſovereignty of Flanders and Artois, as well as renounce all his claims upon Italy; in return for which Charles renounced his pretenſions to Burgundy. Henry had been acquainted with all the ſteps taken in this negociation, and indeed behaved with great generoſity on the occaſion; for, no ſooner was the treaty finally ſettled, than he ſent his ally an acquital for 600,000 crowns, in order to enable him to fulfil his engagements with Charles. The Italian princes, however, were leſs pleaſed with the tranſaction than Henry; for they dreaded the power and tyranny of the emperor; at the ſame time that they found themſelves entirely abandoned to his will, without a ſingle ſtipulation in their favour. But at preſent Charles behaved with uncommon generoſity, ſo that none had any reaſon to complain, except the Florentines, whom he reduced under the power of the family of the Medici; the cauſe of which great moderation was at that time aſcribed to his fear of the Turkiſh arms. Fortunately his generals repulſed theſe barbarians, and Charles himſelf, having endeavoured as much as poſſible, but without ſucceſs, to ſuppreſs the reformation, undertook an expedition againſt the pirates of Barbary. At that time, as at the preſent day, the principal ſtates of the country were Algiers, Morocco, and Tunis, which,

which, from time immemorial, have been neſts of pirates, eſpecially thoſe of Algiers and Tunis. A famous corſair, named Barbaroſſa, had ſucceeded his brother in the kingdom of Algiers, which he had formerly aſſiſted him in the uſurpation of. He managed matters with a dexterity far exceeding any of his predeceſſors; but at laſt his piracies upon all the Chriſtian powers became ſo flagrant and intolerable, that he began to fear a general combination againſt him, and therefore put himſelf under the protection of Solyman the Turkiſh emperor. By him he was promoted to the command of his fleet; and having forthwith repaired to Conſtantinople, he made uſe of all his intereſt with Solyman to extend his own dominions. Having ingratiated himſelf with him as much as poſſible, he next ventured to ſeize on the kingdom of Tunis, after which he carried on his depredations againſt the Chriſtians with more violence than ever.

Innumerable complaints of the piracies of this barbarian had been brought to almoſt every potentate of Europe; and all of them ſeemed to turn their eyes on Charles as the only prince at that time able to protect them; and he was now alſo applied to by Muley Haſcen, the exiled king of Tunis, for aſſiſtance to regain his ſovereiguty. Charles, having ſo many motives to excite him to this expedition, did not long heſitate; and, having concluded a treaty with the unfortunate prince, ſet ſail, without delay, with a formidable armament. His firſt exploit was the taking of Goletta, a ſea-port town, with all the fleet of Barbaroſſa. He next defeated him in a pitched battle; 10,000 Chriſtian ſlaves being ſet at liberty, made themſelves maſters of the citadel of Tunis; and the place was preparing to ſurrender, when the emperor's troops, fearing they would be deprived of the booty they expected if a capitulation was allowed, broke ſuddenly in, and maſſacred all they met without diſtinction. No fewer than 30,000 perſons periſh'd by the ſword on this occaſion, and 10,000 were made priſoners. Muley Haſcen was reſtored to the ſovereignty, upon condition that he ſhould acknowledge himſelf a vaſſal of Spain, and put into the emperor's hands all the fortified ſea-ports in the kingdom of Tunis, and pay annually 12,000 crowns for the ſubſiſtence of the Spaniſh garriſon in Goletta.

During this war 20,000 Chriſtian ſlaves had been ſet at liberty either by treaty, or force of arms; after which, Charles having ſettled matters ſo much to his ſatisfaction, ſet out for Spain, where his preſence was become very neceſſary; while Barbaroſſa, making uſe of the opportunity to recover his ſtrength, became once more the terror of the Chriſtians. The preſent troubles were owing to the ill timed ambition of the king of France, who could not bear the thoughts of being deprived of his Italian dominions; and who, though he had ſolemnly renounced his pretenſions to them by the treaty of Cambray, wanted only a proper opportunity of breaking it, which the abſence of Charles ſeemed to have furniſhed him with. All his ſchemes, however, were fruſtrated by unforeſeen accidents. The death of Pope Clement VII. put an end to all hopes from that quarter; Henry, now occupied by his domeſtic concerns, declined having any farther concern in the affairs of the continent; and the Proteſtant princes of Germany, to whom he likewiſe applied, offended with his having burnt ſix people of their religion, with circumſtances of the moſt horrid cruelty, refuſed to take any part with him. Nevertheleſs, Francis, though unſupported by a ſingle ally, determined to lead another army into Italy. His pretence for this at preſent,

ſent, was, that he intended to chaſtiſe the duke of Milan for a breach of the law of nations in putting an ambaſſador of his to death. Inſtead of executing this purpoſe, however, he commenced hoſtilities directly againſt the duke of Savoy; and, in a ſingle campaign, ſtripped him of almoſt all his dominions, except the ſingle province of Piedmont. To complete his misfortunes, the city of Geneva, of which he claimed the ſovereignty, threw off his yoke, as well as the adjacent territory; and ever ſince that time has remained in a ſtate of independency. In this extremity, the duke had no other remedy than to apply for protection to the emperor; but Charles, powerful as he was, could not at preſent afford the neceſſary aſſiſtance; his treaſury was ſo much exhauſted, that he was obliged to diſband his army till he ſhould be able to obtain freſh ſupplies. In the mean time, Francis was deprived of all pretence for committing hoſtilities in that quarter by the death of Sforza duke of Milan; but as Francis had ceded the duchy only to Sforza and his deſcendents, and as the latter died without iſſue, it now naturally reverted to Francis. He did not fail to advance his claims immediately to the duchy; but having neglected to enforce them by the powerful argument of an army, Charles ſeized upon it as a vacant fief of the empire. He did not, indeed, pretend at firſt to diſpute the juſtice of the claims of Francis; but ſpun out the time by negociations, until he had recruited his armies and finances, in ſuch a manner as to be able not only to reduce the duchy of Milan, but to attempt the entire ſubverſion of the French monarchy itſelf. In this ſcheme, however, he was diſappointed; for Francis took the moſt effectual method to prevent any conqueſt, viz. the deſolating the country, and rendering it utterly impoſſible for an army to ſubſiſt there. Charles, who apprehended no ſuch thing, invaded the kingdom with three different armies at once; but was ſurpriſed, inſtead of the fertile and populous country he expected, to meet with one vaſt deſart, where not a human creature was to be ſeen. Still, however, he perſevered in his deſign, and marched into the country ſo far, that he loſt half his army by diſeaſe or famine. After this he thought proper to retreat; but was, in his way, attacked and defeated by the light troops of France; ſo that, fearing to expoſe himſelf to the contempt of his Italian ſubjects, he ſet ſail directly for Spain. The reſentment between him and Francis now got to the utmoſt extremity of perſonal virulence. The two greateſt monarchs of the age were not aſhamed to deſcend to the language of Billingſgate in ſpeaking of each other, and ſeveral challenges paſſed between them, from which hiſtorians are of opinion that the pernicious practice of duelling either took its origin, or became greatly more faſhionable. At laſt, Francis determined at all events to reduce the power of his rival, entered into an alliance with the Turks, who invaded Italy and Hungary, where, beſides gaining ſeveral leſſer advantages, they defeated the Imperialiſts in a great battle. This was ſufficient to humble the pride of Charles, and it was perhaps the only thing that could have done it. He now became no leſs deſirous of a peace than Francis, and the two rival monarchs, who had expreſſed the moſt violent reſentment againſt each other, in a ſhort time met and converſed with the utmoſt familiarity, as if they had been on terms of the greateſt friendſhip. It was always the fate of Francis, who poſſeſſed an undeſigning frankneſs and generoſity of temper, to be the dupe of the treachery and inſidious policy of Charles. The latter had at preſent found himſelf under an abſolute neceſſity of making peace, not only

on account of the terror he was under from the progreſs of the Turkiſh arms, but likewiſe from the diſtreſſed ſituation of his own affairs. His treaſures had been entirely exhauſted by the many expenſive wars he had carried on; and nothing prevented them from a total revolt but the dexterity and abilities of ſome of his generals; and, what was worſe, the Spaniards refuſed to aſſiſt him with money in order to diſcharge his debts to them. To obtain this, Charles had aſſembled the cortes of Caſtile at Toledo; and having repreſented to them the great expence of his military operations, he propoſed to levy ſuch ſupplies as the preſent exigency of affairs demanded by a general exciſe on merchandiſe. But the Spaniards, already oppreſſed by taxes more than they could bear, abſolutely refuſed to ſubmit to this new impoſition. The nobles, particularly, inveighed vehemently againſt the new tax, which, they inſiſted was an encroachment on the valuable and diſtinguiſhing privilege of their order, viz. that of being exempted from taxation. Charles diſmiſſed the aſſembly with great indignation; and from that day neither the prelates nor nobility have been called to the Cortes, on pretence that thoſe who pay no part of the public taxes ſhould not have a vote in laying them on. Theſe aſſemblies now conſiſt only of the deputies from 18 towns, being 36 in all, and are thus eaſily kept in ſubjection to the will of the prince.

To add to the embaraſſment of Charles, an inſurrection had now taken place in the Low Countries. The inhabitants of Ghent ſolicited Francis to join them in throwing off the Spaniſh yoke, and to recover for himſelf the provinces which formerly belonged to his crown. But Francis once more ſuffered himſelf to be duped by Charles in political matters. The latter, by promiſing to inveſt him with the duchy of Milan, not only prevented him from aſſiſting the people of Ghent, but even procured for himſelf a paſſage through the French dominions into his own. This was no ſooner done than he refuſed to perform his promiſe to Francis, and even denied that he had made any ſuch promiſe. Thus the animoſity, between theſe monarchs was revived in full vigour, and Francis waited only for an opportunity of beginning the war anew. This ſoon occurred. Charles having been obliged to make great conceſſions to the Proteſtants, undertook an expedition againſt Algiers, in which he loſt an army of 30,000 men by a tempeſt and the attacks of the enemy, and was with difficulty ſaved from the fury of the ocean himſelf. Francis, encouraged by his misfortune, immediately commenced hoſtilities, and indeed he was now furniſhed with too good an excuſe. The marquis del Guaſto, governor of Milan, having received information of the motions and deſigns of two ambaſſadors whom Francis had diſpatched, one to the Ottoman Porte, and the other to Venice, and being likewiſe conſcious that his maſter wiſhed to diſcover the intentions of the French monarch, cauſed the ambaſſadors to be cruelly murdered, and afterwards ſeized upon their papers. Francis inſtantly demanded reparation, and as Charles ſtill endeavoured to put him off with an evaſive anſwer, made all Europe reſound with his complaints; but all his efforts could now procure only an alliance with the kings of Denmark and Sweden, who, for the firſt time, began to interfere in the affairs of the ſouthern nations. Notwithſtanding all he had ſuffered, however, Francis ſtill perſiſted in his determination to attack his rival, even without the aſſiſtance of any allies. Five armies were got ready in a very ſhort time, all of which were to enter the Imperial dominions

at as many different places. Charles was not deficient in his preparations; but, notwithſtanding the apparent animoſity of the two monarchs againſt each other, nothing of importance was atchieved on either ſide, excepting the battle of Ceriſoles, where the Imperialiſts were entirely defeated, with the loſs of 10,000 of their beſt troops. Both monarchs, however, ſoon became weary of a war in which they plainly ſaw that no deciſive advantage was to be gained on either ſide; ſo that a peace was ſoon concluded. More advantageous terms were granted to France than what might have been expected from the character of Charles, and the advantages he had already gained; but to this he was now induced by his extreme averſion to the Proteſtants, and the deſire he had to exterminate their religion if poſſible. But this it never was in his power to accompliſh, and he now found himſelf obliged to conclude a peace both with them and the Turks, upon terms very diſadvantageous to himſelf.

The latter part of the reign of this turbulent and ambitious monarch proved very unfortunate. By the peace concluded on this occaſion he loſt Metz, Toul, and Verdun; and in an attempt to recover theſe, he loſt 30,000 men, the reſt of his army being reduced to the moſt miſerable ſituation that can be imagined. So low was his credit now reduced, that, when obliged to borrow 200,000 crowns, he could not obtain it without putting the principality of Piombino in Italy into the hands of Coſmo de Medici, who advanced the money; and thus he loſt alſo the intereſt he had hitherto had in Tuſcany. A moſt unfortunate event happened alſo in the kingdom of Naples. The inhabitants, diſguſted with the tyranny of the Spaniſh viceroy, made a general revolt, and Proſper, prince of Salerno, who headed the malcontents, fled to France for protection. Siena likewiſe, long accuſtomed to a republican government, and not able to endure the tyranny of the Spaniſh yoke, revolted, and applied to the ſame power for protection. The French monarch (Henry, the ſon of Francis I.) allied himſelf with the Turks; and Solyman, highly incenſed againſt Charles, ſent a powerful fleet into the Mediterranean, under the command of Dragut, an experienced officer, trained up by Barbaroſſa, and ſcarce inferior to him in any reſpect. He appeared on the coaſt of Calabria, where he expected to have been joined by a French army; but, being diſappointed in this, he was obliged to return to Conſtantinople, after plundering and burning ſome towns on the coaſt. Charles, exaſperated by ſo many diſaſters, ſet ſail for the Low Countries, denouncing the utmoſt vengeance againſt his enemies. Here he met with ſome ſucceſs; but, in Italy, matters went worſe; for the French not only conquered part of Tuſcany, but the iſland of Corſica likewiſe. A revolt likewiſe took place in Hungary, and he was obliged to yield Tranſylvania to the Turks. To counterbalance ſo many misfortunes, Charles projected a marriage betwixt his ſon Philip and the princeſs Mary of England, in hopes of thus adding that kingdom to his other dominions. But, though the intended match took place, he found it impoſſible to make the Engliſh allow him any ſhare in the government; ſo that Philip ſpent very little of his time in that country. In Italy, however, matters now took a turn for the better; the French, under Strozzi, were defeated in the battle of Merciano, and Siena was again reduced; but Charles at length, finding his health greatly impaired by the frequent attacks of the gout, to which he had been ſubject from his youth, and diſappointed in all his ſchemes of ambition, took the unex-

pected and ſingular reſolution of reſigning the crown to his ſon Philip, and retiring from all the pomp and grandeur of the world at once. This he actually put in execution, and of all his vaſt poſſeſſions reſerved to himſelf only a penſion of 100,000 crowns annually.

The reſignation of Charles was followed by a five years truce with France, which gave great offence to the Pope, with whom Henry had concluded a treaty. The latter, however, was eaſily gained over by his Holineſs, who then he proceeded to the utmoſt extremities with the Spaniſh monarch. Philip, alarmed at a quarrel with the Pope, whom he had been taught to regard with the moſt ſuperſtitious veneration, durſt not take arms againſt him without previouſly trying every gentle method, and even conſulting divines upon the ſubject. They decided the matter in his favour, and the duke of Alva, with 10,000 veterans, was ſent into Italy. The Pope was at firſt obliged to give way to the fears of the cardinals, and conclude a truce for ſix weeks; but, on hearing that the duke of Guiſe was ſent into Italy with an army of 10,000 men, he plucked up his courage, and determined to be revenged. Here he was diſappointed; for the duke of Guiſe, notwithſtanding his ſkill in military affairs, could perform nothing worthy of his former character, and therefore begged to be recalled. Philip no ſooner heard that the French had commenced hoſtilities in Italy, than he determined to take ample vengeance, and therefore ſent a formidable army into the Low Countries, under the command of Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, and one of the greateſt generals of his age. By him the French were defeated before the town of St Quintin, and ſo complete was the victory, that the general deſired Philip to allow him to march directly towards Paris, in order to put an end to the French monarchy at once. This was not permitted; the duke being commanded to continue the ſiege of St Quintin; by which delay the French had time to recover, and put themſelves into a poſture of defence. On occaſion of his victory, however, Philip built the celebrated palace of the Eſcurial, of which an account has been already given; and, as he ſtill doubted the juſtice of his cauſe in making war with the Pope, he very readily conſented to a peace. The conſequences of this war were very favourable to Italy; for, in order to detach Octavio Farneſe, duke of Parma, from the intereſt of France, Philip reſtored to him the city of Placentia and its territory, which had been ſeized by Charles V.; and he granted to Coſmo de Medici the inveſtiture of Siena, as an equivalent for the ſums due to him. Thus the balance among the Italian ſtates became more equal, and that country thenceforth ceaſed to be a theatre of war between the Germans, French, and Italians, as it had hitherto been. The war, however, ſtill continued betwixt Henry and Philip for ſome time longer; but, at length, both parties weary of continuing their hoſtilities at ſuch an expence, and to ſo little purpoſe, conſented to a peace; and while the negociations for this treaty were carrying on, the celebrated monarch Charles V. died in the monaſtery of St Juſtus in Eſtremadura in Spain, which he had choſen for the place of his retreat.

During the reign of Philip, Spain began to loſe much of its conſequence. His father had uſed his utmoſt endeavours to get him elected emperor; but had been diſappointed, chiefly through the ſtiff and haughty behaviour of Philip himſelf; who, even when ſoliciting the intereſt of the German princes, treated them with ſuch an air of ſuperiority, as made them dread his tyranny ſhould he ever aſcend the Imperial

Imperial throne. His exceſſive ſeverity to the inhabitants of the Low Countries, with his boundleſs ſuperſtition and deſpotiſm, alſo produced a moſt dangerous revolt in theſe parts, which ended in the entire ſeparation of thoſe ſeven which form the republic; and a final blow was given to the naval power of the kingdom, by the loſs of the Armada in his war with Elizabeth in 1588. The very ſource of wealth, viz. the dominions acquired in South America, alſo proved of the moſt fatal conſequence; for thus the inhabitants began to acquire that indolent turn, for which they are at this day ſo remarkable, to the neglect of every ſpecies of commerce and manufacture, which alone can enrich a nation. The moſt fatal ſtroke to the Spaniſh greatneſs, however, happened in the reign of Philip III. who, blinded by ſuperſtition, and inſtigated by the bloody inquiſitors, and his prime miniſter, the duke of Lerma, expelled from the kingdom all the deſcendents of the Moors, though they were now the moſt active and induſtrious part of the community. The reaſon for this impolitic and cruel meaſure was, that though they had pretended to embrace Chriſtianity, they were ſtill Mahometans in their hearts, and might thus corrupt the true religion. Theſe poor people attempted at firſt to defend themſelves, but finding this impracticable, for want of arms, they were at laſt obliged to ſubmit to the will of the ſovereign, and were accordingly, to the number of a million, all baniſhed at once. To all theſe mis fortunes was added the loſs of the kingdom of Portugal, which in the reign of Philip V. revolted, and could not be reduced. The conqueſt of it had been one of the principal glories, if not the only glory of the reign of Philip II. of which an account will be giving in its proper place. It had been conquered in 1580, and continued ſubject to Spain only till 1640, when the natives, provoked by the inſolence of the viceroys, threw off the yoke, and ever ſince that time it has remained in a ſtate of independency. In the year 1701, the crown devolved upon Philip duke of Anjou, grandſon to the dauphin of France, in conſequence of the failure of the Auſtrian line in Charles II. The increaſed power of Louis XIV. now alarmed Europe as much as that of Charles V.* had ever done; and ſuch a powerful combination was formed againſt him, that great as his power was, he found it impoſſible to reſiſt. With a view to abridge this enormous power, it was concerted by the allies to remove Philip from the throne of Spain, and place upon it Charles III. archduke of Auſtria. But though this prince was ſupported by Britain, and met with ſuch ſucceſs at firſt, as to be crowned at Madrid, and even acknowledged by the Pope as lawful ſovereign, he was at laſt forced to yield to the ſuperior fortune of Philip, and to quit all hopes of the Spaniſh throne; the privileges of his rival being confirmed to him by the treaty of Utrecht. Since that time wars betwixt Spain and Britain have not been uncommon. In the reign of George I. and begining of that of George II. their navy ſuffered extremely in its engagements with the Britiſh fleet; but, notwithſtanding all the exploits of the latter, the king of Spain obtained his point of ſettling the kingdom of Naples on his ſon; a change, however, which was highly agreeable to the Neapolitans, who had been grievouſly oppreſſed by the Imperialiſts. A new war commenced in 1739, but the events on either

* This monarch was called Charles *the fifth*, as emperor of Germany, not as king of Spain; for he was the firſt of the name of Charles that ſat on the Spaniſh throne.

ſide were by no means important. It was renewed in 1761, but with very bad ſucceſs on the ſide of Spain; for the Britiſh took the ſtrong and important fortreſs of Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, thereby rendering themſelves maſters of the navigation of the Plate fleets. Next year they reduced the Spaniſh Eaſt India iſlands, and drove the Spaniards out of the kingdom of Portugal, which they had invaded; and theſe diſaſters entirely broke the ſpirits of the Spaniſh miniſtry, ſo that they were very glad to accept of peace on reaſonable terms.

The power and wealth of the Britiſh nation was now riſen to ſuch an height, that the humbling it became an object to the European powers, no leſs than that of Auſtria and Bourbon had formerly been. For a long time paſt, France had indeed been accounted the natural rival and enemy of Britain, and, after the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to the crown of Spain, the latter conſtantly ſhewed ſome diſpoſition to take part with France in the quarrel. Both, however, had been ſo much reduced by the former war, that they did not for ſome time chuſe to engage in an open quarrel. The diſcontents of the American colonies were ſaid to be highly agreeable to both courts; and there are not wanting ſome who aſcribe the revolt of the colonies originally to the emiſſaries of the French court eſpecially. It was not, however, till the year 1779 that the Spaniards took any part in this quarrel, and the firſt operation was to lay ſiege to Gibraltar. The ſiege, or rather blockade, was continued throughout the war, with occaſional fierce attacks on both ſides, though what the garriſon had chiefly to dread was famine, and ſo ſoon did this begin to make its appearance, that about the middle of January 1780, a gooſe was ſold at 10 dollars, a turkey at 20, fowls from 20 to 24 rials each, (about 16s Sterling) flour 3s. 4d. per pound, and other articles in proportion. This diſtreſs had been occaſioned by the want of that ſuperiority which the Britiſh fleet had formerly kept at ſea, but which was now likely to be totally loſt, through the ſuperior numbers of her enemies. Sir George Rodney, however, was now ſent out with a ſtrong ſquadron to the relief of the fortreſs, and had been only a few days at ſea, when he fell in with a very conſiderable convoy bound from St Sebaſtian to Cadiz, conſiſting of 15 ſail of merchantmen, guarded by a ſhip of 64 guns, four frigates from 32 to 26 guns, and two ſmaller armed veſſels. The whole were taken, and the capture proved the more fortunate, as the greater part of the ſhips were laden with flour and other proviſions, the remainder having naval ſtores and bale goods on board. This happened on the 8th of January, and on the 16th of the ſame month, he fell in with eleven ſhips of the line under the command of Don Juan de Langara. The Spaniards, being much inferior in force, declined an engagement as long as they could, but were forced to it by the manœuvres of the Britiſh admiral. The conſequence was, what might have naturally been expected, viz. the capture of five of the Spaniſh ſhips, while the reſt eſcaped with the greateſt difficulty. After the battle, admiral Rodney proceeded with the utmoſt expedition to Gibraltar, which he at that time effectually relieved. The ſame difficulties, however, very frequently returned, and by degrees the attacks of the Spaniards became more ſerious. On the firſt of October this year, they erected a breaſt-work within 800 yards of the Britiſh lines, ſet fire to the huts in the gardens, and attempted to burn down the gates, but were ſpeedily repulſed. They continued to exert themſelves

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to the utmoſt, in firing occaſionally, but without any effect; nor were even all their efforts able to prevent ſhips ſometimes from coming in from the coaſt of Barbary with proviſions; ſo that the garriſon, though frequently in diſtreſs, ſtill continued to hold out, and though the Spaniſh army and train of artillery continued daily to increaſe, the utmoſt efforts of their power ſeemed to be inſufficient to make the leaſt impreſſion on this impregnable fortreſs. So little regard indeed was paid to the formidable preparations of the Spaniards, that, even from the beginning of the ſiege, it had been cuſtomary with general Elliot the commander, to allow them to bring their works to perfection, and then to demoliſh them. On the 27th of November 1781, a fierce attack of this kind took place, in which the Britiſh overturned and deſtroyed ſeveral of the Spaniſh batteries, driving them from their works, and ruining in one night the labour of many days. The more frequently the beſiegers were diſappointed, however, the more eager they ſeemed to accompliſh their point. The moſt prodigious number of cannon, mortars, and all other deſtructive engines of that kind that perhaps ever were aſſembled in any one enterpriſe, were now brought before a ſingle fortreſs, the utmoſt efforts of the moſt ſkilful engineers were exhauſted; and all without being able to reduce, or even make the leaſt impreſſion upon it. By the violence of their fire, indeed, the houſes were reduced to ruins, and the inhabitants obliged to remove to England; but the fortifications of the place were ſcarce ever damaged in the leaſt. The ſoldiers were ſo much accuſtomed to ſhells falling and burſting near them, that they became in a manner inſenſible of danger; and their officers were frequently obliged to call to them to avoid them, when juſt ready to burſt at their feet. The effects of one of theſe ſhells burſting is ſhocking beyond expreſſion; and captain Drinkwater, in his account of this ſiege, gives many dreadful inſtances of their deſtructive power; particularly in one unhappy invalid, where a ſhell happened to fall in ſuch a manner, as to lodge itſelf on the bed where he lay; keeping him down with its weight, ſo that he could not make the leaſt effort to eſcape. In a few ſeconds it burſt, and mangled him in a dreadful manner; nevertheleſs he lived for ſome time, and only lamented that he had not died in doing his duty as a ſoldier on the works. Many inſtances occurred, in which the eſcapes of people from burſting ſhells appeared almoſt miraculous; but, what was moſt ſurpriſing, though the ſhells, by reaſon of their fiery train, were viſible in the air, and by reaſon of the length of way they had to go, might have been avoided, the ſight of them was attended with a kind of faſcination in the beholder, ſo that he could not ſtir. In this ſituation ſome have even called out for help, not being able to make uſe of their limbs to relieve themſelves. This account is entirely ſimilar to what travellers relate of the power of ſerpents to faſcinate ſmall animals and birds, and make them run directly into their mouths. Captain Drinkwater relates the caſe of an officer who was faſcinated by a cannon ſhot (for theſe alſo are viſible when viewed in a direct line between the eye and the cannon) that he had no power to ſtir, till the ſhot ſtruck him, and took away his leg. Amidſt this dreadful ſcene there were two boys who proved of ſingular uſe to the garriſon; the acuteneſs of their ſight being ſuch that they could trace the ſhot directly from the mouth of the cannon, and thus give warning to the ſoldiers of their danger; though indeed they had frequent occaſion to complain that their advice was neglected, and

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that the former incurred danger through mere inſenſibility without any occaſion.

Thus the ſiege proceeded, but with much greater loſs to the beſiegers than the garriſon; until at laſt the Spaniſh monarch, impatient of ſo many delays, reſolved to exert all the force of the kingdom rather than miſs this favourite object. The grand effort was made in the year 1782, when the duke de Crillon, who had acquired great reputation by his conqueſt of Minorca, was appointed commander in chief. The moſt celebrated engineers whom perhaps the world could produce, were aſſembled on the occaſion; and not only were the artillery augmented to a prodigious degree, but a new kind of battering ſhips were invented, which it was intended ſhould not only reſiſt the action of common ſhot, but of red hot balls alſo. Theſe were conſtructed in ſuch a manner as to have water running in pipes through every part of them; a conſtant circulation of which was kept up by pumps wrought by the people on board. The whole were covered and defended in ſuch a manner as ſeemed to promiſe the utmoſt ſafety, in ſpite of every thing that could be done by the enemy; and, in ſhort, every thing that ſeemed capable of being accompliſhed by human art for the ſecurity of theſe machines was put in practice, except that plain and obvious method of ſecuring wood from the effects of fire, viz. the ſoaking it in ſome chemical ſolution, which will not allow it to burn. It ſeems indeed ſurpriſing that this was not thought of; for it is well known, that mere water, unleſs applied in enormous quantity, more than could poſſibly be furniſhed by the internal pipes of theſe floating batteries, as they were called, will not prevent the effects of fire, eſpecially when accumulated in maſſes of red-hot metal; and the event of this enterpriſe was an additional confirmation of the fact.

Every thing was got ready by the beginning of the month of September 1782, and the Spaniards had determined to make a grand attack both by ſea and land at the ſame time; though general Elliot reſolved to leſſen their power in ſome degree before they ſhould have an opportunity of making this effort. On the eighth of the month, therefore, he commenced a heavy fire on the Spaniſh outworks and batteries, with carcaſes, hot ſhot, and ſhells. The attack commenced at ſeven in the morning, and by 10 o'clock one of the Spaniſh batteries, conſiſting of ſix pieces of cannon, with an adjoining one of two guns, was on fire; and by five in the afternoon, both were totally conſumed, together with all the magazines, gun-carriages, and platforms belonging to them. Another battery of 13 guns was likewiſe deſtroyed in ſuch a manner, that the Spaniards were under the neceſſity of taking down one-half of it. Next day, by way of retaliation, they opened a new battery of 64 guns from whence they continued to fire without intermiſſion, as well as from all their lines, accompanied with a diſcharge of all their mortars. By this tremendous fire, however, very little damage was done to the works; nor was any impreſſion made upon them by ſeveral ſucceſſive cannonades, or by an attack of ſeven ſail of Spaniſh, and two French ſhips of the line, accompanied with a large frigate and xebeque. Sixteen Spaniſh gun-boats alſo came over from Algeſiras on the African continent, but were obliged to retire in half an hour by the fire from the Britiſh batteries. On the 13th of the ſame month the great attack was made by the floating batteries above mentioned. Theſe were 10 in number, from 600 to 1400 tons burthen, carrying in all 212 braſs guns entirely

tirely new, and diſcharging ſhot of 26 pounds weight. Thirty-ſix men were appointed for each gun, excluſive of the officers and men for working the ſhips. Three hundred large boats had alſo been collected for the purpoſe of carrying troops, or other operations neceſſary for the ſiege. The fire was commenced about 10 in the forenoon by the admiral's ſhip, at the diſtance of about 1000 yards from that part of the fortifications called the king's baſtion, and his example was quickly followed by the reſt. The garriſon were not ſlow in making a return; and red-hot ſhot were ſent from the batteries in ſuch numbers, and with ſo good an aim, that, in the afternoon, ſmoke was perceived to iſſue from the admiral's ſhip and another, while the men were buſy in pouring water into the ſhot holes, to ſtop the progreſs of the flames. This, however, proved totally ineffectual; the reaſon of which is, that the vaſt heat of the upper part of the red-hot balls rarefied the under part of the water into ſteam, which by its elaſticity kept the reſt from getting down, while the under part of the ball, having nothing to ſtop its deſtructive progreſs, continued to prey upon the wood, and as ſoon as a communication was made betwixt it and the air, the flames broke forth with great violence. By one in the morning the Spaniſh admiral, and ſeveral others were in flames, and great numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ſhips as ſignals of diſtreſs. It being found impracticable to remove the ſhips, the Spaniſh fleet attempted to carry off the men, when 12 Britiſh gun-boats, each carrying a cannon of 18 or 24 pounds ſhot, under the command of Sir Roger Curtis, advanced to the attack, at the ſame time that they were annoyed by an heavy fire from the garriſon. On this the Spaniards were obliged either to abandon their ſhips to the mercy of the Britiſh, or to the flames, and the ſcene became dreadful beyond all deſcription. The Spaniards had before this time ceaſed to be capable of acting as enemies, ſo that the only endeavour of the Britiſh was now to ſave as many of them as poſſible; and even this became a matter of no little difficulty, by reaſon of the blowing up of the ſhips, and the previous diſcharge of the guns as the fire reached them. By their exertions on this occaſion, 13 officers and 344 men were ſaved; and captain Curtis diſtinguiſhed himſelf in an eminent manner in this dangerous though humane undertaking.

Thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortreſs of Gibraltar except by famine; and even this appeared very dubious. Their loſs by the many unſucceſsful attempts that had been made muſt have been exceſſive, excluſive of the number of men who had periſhed. The expence of the laſt armament alone was undoubtedly very great; and it is not improbable that the money ſunk upon this ſingle enterpriſe exceeded all that was laid out on the reſt of the operations of war. By a continuance of the blockade, however, proviſions had again riſen to an enormous price, when Lord Howe was ſent to the relief of the fortreſs. He was oppoſed by the combined fleets of France and Spain, conſiſting of 50 ſail of two and three decked ſhips, who had ſome time before taken their ſtation in Gibraltar bay; but, far from being diſmayed at the ſuperior number of his enemies, this gallant commander did not heſitate in the leaſt to engage them. Their numbers, indeed, by the time he got up to them, were ſomewhat diminiſhed; amounting only to 45 ſail of the line; ſo that with the ſuperiority of ſkill on the part of the Britiſh officers and ſeamen, there is not the leaſt doubt that a complete victory muſt have been the conſequence of a cloſe engagement.

gagement. This, however, the allies wiſely declined, and only a ſlight encounter enſued, after which his lordſhip was allowed to throw in the ſuccours he had brought with him without any interruption. Some trifling operations were continued on the part of the Spaniards till the reſtoration of peace in 1783. This happy event was announced on the ſecond of February, when a flag of truce arrived from the duke de Crillon, acquainting general Elliot that he had the greateſt reaſon to believe that hoſtilities had ceaſed between the courts of Spain and Great Britain. Both parties immediately ceaſed firing, and next morning the Spaniards appeared in crowds upon the works, ſhewing marks of the utmoſt ſatisfaction at the relief they now enjoyed from that terrible ſervice in which they had been ſo long engaged. The officers came under the lines, bowing in the moſt reſpectful manner, and aſſuring thoſe in the Britiſh ſervice, that a peace had now taken place; and in a very ſhort time a moſt amicable correſpondence took place betwixt the two nations, who, but a few days before, had ſought every method of deſtroying each other *.

N° 13. In

* The fortreſs of Gibraltar has lately become ſo remarkable on account of the many ſieges it has undergone, and the extraordinary ſtrength of its fortifications, that we hope a ſhort hiſtory of it will not be unacceptable to our readers.

Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in the year 711, or 712, as we have already obſerved, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mount Calpe*. On their arrival a fortreſs was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Jibal Tarik*, or the *Mountain of Tarik*, from the name of the chieftain who built it. Hence proceeds the name of Gibraltar, which it has ever ſince retained. It was taken from the Spaniards in 1310 by Alonzo Perez de Guzman, and appears even then to have been a place of great conſequence, as the loſs of it was ſo much reſented by the nation, that they murdered their ſovereign on that account. In 1316 an unſucceſsful attempt was made to recover it; but better fortune attended an enterpriſe in 1332, when the Spaniards being cut off from all ſupplies of proviſions, were obliged to ſurrender, after having ſubſiſted for ſome time on the leather of their ſhields. At this time, however, the Spaniards, under Don Alonzo XI. were within four days march of Gibraltar when it ſurrendered. It was therefore immediately inveſted again, and in this ſiege both the Spaniards and Moors experienced extraordinary difficulties; the former being themſelves beſieged; ſo that at laſt they were obliged to enter into a treaty with the Moors, and to raiſe the ſiege. The next attempt to regain it was begun in 1349, and continued for nine months, when the Moors were reduced to great ſtraits, ſo that they were obliged to capitulate. In 1410 it was taken by Yuſef the third, Mooriſh king of Granada; but next year the Infidels were driven out by the inhabitants, who put themſelves under the protection of the emperor of Fez. This proved but a temporary relief from the yoke of the Infidels; for in the January following it was beſieged by ſea and land, and the garriſon at laſt ſtarved into a ſurrender. In 1438 the Spaniards made another unſucceſsful attempt under Don Enrique de Guzman, who was defeated by the Moors, and drowned; but in 1462 it was regained by his ſon, and has ever ſince remained in poſſeſſion of the Chriſtians. In 1704 it fell into the hands of the Britiſh, rather through accident than any thing elſe. The prince of Heſſe, with 1800 men, landed on the iſthmus, but an attack on that ſide was found to be impracticable, by reaſon of the ſteepneſs of the rock. The fleet fired 15,000 ſhot without making any impreſſion on the works, ſo that the fortreſs ſeems to be equally impregnable both to the Britiſh and Spaniards, except by famine. At laſt, a party of ſailors, having got merry with grog, rowed cloſe under the New Mole in their boats, and as they ſaw that the garriſon, who conſiſted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the mole, hoiſted a red jacket as a ſignal of poſſeſſion. This being immediately obſerved from the fleet, more

boats

In other enterprises, however, the Spaniards proved more successful. The island of Minorca was surrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been besieged for 171 days. The garrison consisted of no more than 2692 men; while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spanish commander attempted at first to corrupt the governor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the siege was commenced in form; and the garrison would have shewed themselves equally invincible with those of Gibraltar, had it been possible to relieve them in the same manner. This being found impossible, however, by reason of the enemy being in complete possession of the country, the scurvy soon made its appearance, and reduced them to such a deplorable situation, that they were obliged at last to surrender, in spite of every effort of human fortitude or skill; and so sensible were both parties that this was the true cause, that the Spanish general al-

boats and sailors were sent out, who, in like manner, having ascended the works, got possession of a battery, and soon obliged the town to surrender.

Ever since that time, this fortress has remained in the hands of the British, though their possession of it has been a perpetual eye sore to the Spaniards. An attempt to regain it was made in 1705, under the marquis de Villadarias, but it proved unsuccessful, after the siege had continued for four months. The expence at which Great Britain has maintained it indeed has been enormous; and such additions have been made to its works, that it is now undoubtedly the strongest fortress in the world. At the treaty of Utrecht it was ceded to Great Britain, with a right of pre-emption, in case the latter should think proper to dispose of it; but though many offers of purchase were made, as well as of others in exchange, all proved unsuccessful; though, in the year 1727, the affair was warmly debated in the House of Commons. The negociations thus proving unsuccessful, an attempt was made the same year to regain it by force, but this likewise proved unsuccessful. The last siege of 1779 was the 13th recorded in the history of this celebrated fortress, and more remarkable, in all probability, than any that it ever will undergo. From the beginning it was blocked up by sea and land, under admiral Don Barcello, and Don Juan de Mendoza. The latter was recalled in a short time, and general Alveny was appointed, who commanded till the duke de Crillon arrived from Minorca, who continued till the end of the siege. That the bravery of the British garrison deserves every encomium, there is not the least reason to doubt, but that they resisted the immense force brought against them, merely by the efforts of their own valour, is incredible. The account of the killed and wounded alone is sufficient to shew, that the garrison must have been assisted by very strong fortifications, or it was impossible that any skill whatever could have resisted such a tremendous power. The siege continued in all very near four years; and from the time that the bombardment commenced, to the peace in February 1783, the whole number of killed amounted only to 220, and the wounded to 1428; and, of the latter, 918 recovered of their wounds. In the same time the enemy had expended 182,530 cannon shot, and 75,858 shells; a number sufficient to have destroyed ten times as many as were in the garrison, had they not been in a manner invulnerable by reason of their impenetrable fortifications. This prodigious fire was returned by the garrison with 200,829 shot of one kind or other, which must have done damage in proportion to the greater exposure of the Spaniards. Mr Ancell, in his journal of the siege of Gibraltar, has given an account of the average price of provisions during the siege; some of the articles of which are almost incredible. Among these we are informed that a hen's egg sold for 10s. 7½d.; a pint of milk for 1s. 3d.; a pound of potatoes for 2s. 5½d.; a turkey for 2l. 8s 9d.; a goose for 1l. 10s. 4d.; bread 1s. 7½d.; flour 1s. 3d; veal, mutton, and beef, upwards of 4s. *per* pound, and other articles in proportion.

lowed them to march out with their arms ſhouldered, drums beating, and colours flying; while the diſconſolate Britiſh ſoldiers proteſted that they ſurrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

In the Weſt Indies alſo the Spaniſh proved ſucceſsful in the reduction of the Bahama iſlands; though theſe were afterwards recovered; and on the continent of America they reduced the province of Florida, which was confirmed to them by the peace of 1783. In the beginning of the war they ſuſtained a very conſiderable loſs, amounting to no leſs than three millions ſterling, by the capture of the fortreſs of Omoa, though this was alſo retaken in a ſhort time. By the treaty of 1783 juſt mentioned, the Spaniards were allowed to keep poſſeſſion of the iſland of Minorca, and of Weſt Florida, though the province of Eaſt Florida, and the Bahama iſlands, as well as all other conqueſts, were to be reſtored; and the liberty of cutting logwood in a particular diſtrict in the bay of Campeachy, was to be allowed, without any moleſtation whatever. Since that period the Spaniſh hiſtory has afforded few tranſactions of any conſequence, excepting ſome trifling operations againſt the Algerines, the natural enemies of the Spaniards, and of which an account will be given in the hiſtory of Barbary. In 1788 the king, Charles III. died, and was ſucceeded by Charles IV. his ſecond ſon, the oldeſt dying in 1775, but at any rate diſqualified for inheriting the throne by inſanity. By late accounts we are informed of an inſurrection in the colonies of South America, but theſe are yet but vague and imperfect. While the revolution was taking place in France, it was alſo reported that the Spaniſh Cortes were making ſome attempts to throw off the deſpotic yoke under which they have ſo long groaned; but, if any ſuch attempts were made, they muſt have been very feeble; and indeed, conſidering the indolence, poverty, and ignorance of the generality of the Spaniards, we muſt naturally ſuppoſe that it will be yet a long time before they enjoy many of the bleſſings of liberty.

PORTUGAL.

Extent, Situation, &c. THE kingdom of Portugal, occupying the moſt weſterly part of the continent of Europe, extends in length about 300 miles, and in breadth about 100; lying between 37 and 58 degrees of north latitude, and 9°-25′ and 6°-0′ of weſt longitude; being bounded on the north and eaſt by Spain, and on the weſt and ſouth by the Atlantic Ocean.

Name and Diviſions. In former times this county was named *Luſitania*, concerning the origin of which, as well as of the preſent denomination, we are very much in the dark; though the latter is probably derived from the name of ſome noted port or harbour in the country. Concerning the ancient diviſions of it we are entirely ignorant; but, in modern times it is divided as expreſſed in the following table;

	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
The North Division contains	Entre Minho	Braga	6812
	Duro and	Oporto and Viana	
	Tralos Montes	Miranda and Villa Real	
The Middle Division contains	Beira	Coimbra	12650
		Guarda Caſtel Rodrigo	
		Lisbon 38-50 N. lat. 9-00 W. lon.	
	Eſtramadura	St. Ubes, and Leira.	
The South Division contains	Entre Tago	Ebora, or Evora	8398
	Guardiana	Portalegre, Elvas, Beja	
	Alentejo	Legos	
	Algarva	Faro, Tavora, and Silves.	

Air, Soil, and Productions. The air of Portugal is generally accounted very healthy, being leſs ſubject to extremities of heat and cold than the continent of Spain, as being refreſhed by the cooling ſea-breezes in ſummer, and preſerved in winter from the extremity of cold by the neighbourhood of the ocean. The ſoil, in general, is inferior to that of Spain; which, however, may in a great meaſure be aſcribed to the ignorance and indolence of the natives, who are much worſe in this reſpect than the Spaniards. Much of the corn uſed in Portugal is therefore imported from other countries; however they have the ſame fruits with thoſe of Spain, though leſs highly flavoured; but their wines, when old and genuine, are much eſteemed, and thought to be friendly to the human conſtitution; whence probably, as much as from the ſalubrity of the air, the country has obtained its reputation in the cure of conſumptive and other diſtempers. What is called *Port Wine* takes its name from the city of Oporto, from whence 20,000 pipes are ſaid to be exported annually. This quantity, however, is ſaid not to amount to one half of what is conſumed in the Britiſh dominions only; moſt of the wine ſold under the name of *Port* being a compoſition. The merchants in this city are ſaid to have very ſpacious wine vaults, capable of holding ſix or ſeven thouſand pipes at a time. The mineral productions are gems, marble, millſtones, ſalt-petre; and there are alſo ſome mines of metals, though, by reaſon of the indolence of the people, they are not worked. The fleſh of their cattle and poultry affords but very indifferent eating.

Mountains. The kingdom of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky; moſt of the mountains it contains being quite barren; the principal are thoſe which form the boundaries between the provinces of Algarva and Alentejo; with thoſe of Tralos Montes, the rock of Liſbon, ſituated at the mouth of the Tajo.

Bays and Promontaries. The principal bays in Portugal are thoſe of Cadvan or St Ubes, lying to the ſouthward of Liſbon, and the bay of Lagos in the province of Algarva. The principal capes are thoſe of Mondego near the mouth of the river of that name; Cape St Vincent, the ſouthweſt point of the province of Algarva; Cape Eſpithel at the ſouth entrance of the river Tajo, and Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the ſame.

Lakes and Rivers. In this kingdom, as well as in Spain, are ſeveral lakes which make a noiſe before a ſtorm, and ſome are ſaid to ſwallow up the lighteſt ſubſtances; but, unleſs we ſuppoſe theſe to have ſome

ſubterraneous paſſage for their waters, and thus to form a kind of vortex, this circumſtance muſt be accounted altogether incredible. Some are ſaid to have medicinal properties; and there are likewiſe ſome hot baths in the province of Algarva. The rivers all fall into the Atlantic Ocean, and the principal of them riſe in the Spaniſh dominions, ſo that they have already been mentioned in our deſcription of that country. In Portugal, however, it is ſaid that every rivulet is called a river by the inhabitants.

Animals. The cattle and poultry in Portugal are but indifferent, as has already been mentioned; the horſes are ſlender, but ſpirited and lively, but the mules are ſturdy, and very ſerviceable both for draught and carriage: the hogs and kids afford tolerable eating; and the ſea-fiſh are excellent.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Population. Formerly the Portugueſe were remarkable for their valour, and other virtues, but in modern times, particularly ſince the family of Braganza aſcended the throne, they have greatly degenerated; inſomuch, that now they have none of that bold and adventurous ſpirit for which they have been held in ſuch eſtimation. This degeneracy is by ſome aſcribed to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders them afraid of diſobliging their powerful neighbours, though we ſhould apprehend this ought rather to produce the contrary effect, and rouſe them to greater exertion, in order to repel any attack made upon them by ſuperior numbers. In general, they have an exceſſively bad character, inſomuch, that it has been ſaid, if we deprive a Spaniard of all his good qualities, he becomes a Portugueſe. They are ſtigmatized as proud, treacherous, ungrateful, and revengeful in the higheſt degree. The lower ranks are given to downright thieving, and all of them are ſaid to be unfair in their dealings when they can eſcape without being detected. They affect more ſtate than the Spaniards themſelves, and are, if poſſible, more ſuperſtitious. They imitate the cuſtoms of their neighbours as well as their dreſs, and the quality are fond of being gayly dreſſed. In their perſons they are neither ſo tall nor well made as the Spaniards; the ladies are thin and ſmall, their complexion olive, with regular features, and black expreſſive eyes. They have the character of being witty, modeſt, and generous; but have an affectation of gravity, and dreſs awkwardly, though very magnificently, after the Spaniſh faſhion. To their domeſtics they are haughty beyond meaſure; exacting from them an homage, which in other countries is only paid to thoſe of royal blood. In the furniture of their houſes they are very extravagant, and have vaſt numbers of domeſtics, as they never diſcharge any of thoſe who have ſerved their anceſtors. The poorer ſort have ſcarce any furniture at all, and indeed have not much occaſion for any, as they generally ſit croſs-legged upon the ground like the Moors. The women are ſaid to be leſs prolific in this country than in others farther to the northward; and as in moſt other countries, they have here a cuſtom of diſfiguring themſelves with paint. Both ſexes make great uſe of ſpectacles; and the women, when they walk abroad on foot, wear long veils which cover their heads, and leave their faces bare. According to the lateſt accounts, the number of inhabitants may contain about two millions; of which upwards of 300,000 are eccleſiaſtics.

Religion. Popery is the only religion eſtabliſhed, or tolerated in this country; and, till very lately, the inquiſition raged here with more violence than even in Spain. The power of the pope, however, now begins

gins to decline in Portugal as well as in other countries, and the cauſe of ſuperſtition daily to loſe ground; and the inquiſitorial power is now taken from the eccleſiaſtics, and lodged in the hands of the king.

Archbiſhoprics, Biſhoprics, and Univerſities. The Portugueſe archbiſhoprics are only three in number, viz. Liſbon, Evora, and Braga; and to theſe there are 22 ſuffragan biſhoprics, including thoſe of the Portugueſe ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a man of the firſt quality, and holds the rank of cardinal in eccleſiaſtical matters. The principal univerſity is that of Coimbra, founded in 1291 by king Dennes, and has 50 profeſſors. There is another at Evora, which was founded in 1559; and a college where young gentlemen are taught engineering, ſo that they may be qualified for commiſſions when properly inſtructed. In the college of nobles at Liſbon, the young nobility are inſtructed in every kind of ſcience and polite art; and here are kept the books which once compoſed the library of the Jeſuits. The Engliſh language is alſo taught here.

Language. This differs ſo little from the Spaniſh, that both may be accounted the ſame.

Learning and Learned Men. About the end of the 16th century, the Portugueſe undoubtedly underſtood the ſciences of aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, better than any other nation in Europe; ſo that however they may have fallen off ſince that time, we are not to aſcribe the deficiency to their want of genius, but of education. Indeed the want of literature in this country is ſo great, that the natives themſelves are aſhamed of it. The only author of any conſequence is the poet Carnoens, who himſelf was a great adventurer; but this genius was entirely neglected.

Antiquities and Curioſities. At Coimbra a Roman bridge and aqueduct are yet to be met with, almoſt in a ſtate of entire preſervation; and the walls of the place called Santereen, are ſaid likewiſe to be Roman work. Some Mooriſh caſtles alſo remain, and are eſteemed as antiquities. At Liſbon there are a very magnificent church and monaſtery, the uſual burying-place of the royal family of Portugal. The chapel of St. Roch may likewiſe be accounted a curioſity, on account of the richneſs of its paintings, which are all of Moſaic work, compoſed of ſtones of different colours, placed in ſuch a manner as to aſtoniſh the ſpectators. The largeſt diamond in the world is ſaid to be in the poſſeſſion of the king of Portugal. It was brought from the mines of Braſil in South America. The chief natural curioſities are the lakes already mentioned.

Principal Towns, &c. Of theſe the moſt remarkable is Liſbon the capital of the whole kingdom, which is of very conſiderable extent, and ſuppoſed to contain 200,000 inhabitants. In the year 1755 it was almoſt entirely deſtroyed by an earthquake, which alſo buried vaſt numbers of the inhabitants in the ruins; and at the ſame time the remainder was ſet on fire; ſo that it is almoſt entirely rebuilt ſince that time. The new city is much more commodious than the old, being planned out in a very regular form, the ſtreets ſtraight and ſpacious, with many elegant ſquares. The houſes are lofty and well built, of a kind of white ſtone, which makes an elegant appearance at a diſtance.

Next to Liſbon, the city of Oporto is eſteemed of the greateſt conſequence in Portugal; the inhabitants being eſtimated at 30,000. Some Britiſh families have their reſidence in this place, who are principally

cipally concerned in the wine trade, which engages the inhabitants ſo much, that one half of them are ſaid to be coopers. The merchants aſſemble daily in the ſtreets to tranſact buſineſs, and are protected from the ſun by ſail-cloths ſtretched between the houſes. The quantity of wine exported from this place has been already mentioned.

Commerce and Manufactures. Portugal carries on a trade of very conſiderable extent, though with very little profit to the inhabitants, as all the commodities, both of the mother country and the colonies, are engroſſed by foreign nations; not excepting even the more valuable productions of gold, diamonds, pearls, &c. The colonies in South America are certainly of immenſe value, and highly improveable: their extent and value is indeed unknown to themſelves; but whatever the magnitude of the countries may be, it is certain that they abound with gold and ſilver as much as the Spaniſh territories; and with diamonds much more than other parts of the world. The king has a fifth part of the gold brought from the South American colonies; and notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade, by which immenſe quantities are ſmuggled into other countries, his ſhare amounts to L. 300,000 *per annum*. The manufacturers are in a very low ſituation, though of late there have been many attempts to improve them, for which the Britiſh have moſt unjuſtly charged the Portugueſe with ingratitude, as if it were incumbent on any people to remain in ignorance and barbarity for the ſake of procuring gain to others. However, the new companies and regulations inſtituted by the miniſtry, are ſaid to be oppreſſive, and inconſiſtent with the privileges formerly enjoyed by the Britiſh merchants. A ſmall quantity of linen, with ſome coarſe ſilk and woollen goods, are manufactured in this kingdom; and they are reckoned excellent at candying and preſerving fruit; but it is their want of manufactures which impoveriſhes the kingdom, by obliging them to part with their own valuable commodities, in order to purchaſe thoſe of other countries. They have but little ſhipping, which is principally employed in the ſlave trade, or in voyages to the ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.

Conſtitution and Government. Though the king of Portugal is deſpotic, an appearance of liberty is ſtill kept up by the meeting of the Cortes or States, which anſwer to our Parliaments, and, like them, conſiſt of the nobility, clergy, and commons. They have no real power, however, but from its being neceſſary to obtain their conſent for every act relative to the ſucceſſion; in other matters, they are conſulted for faſhion's ſake, but muſt implicitly ſubmit to the will of the ſovereign. The council of ſtate is compoſed of an equal number of the nobility and clergy, with the ſecretary of ſtate at their head. In this aſſembly all offices of importance, both in the civil and eccleſiaſtical line, are diſpoſed of, as the council of war regulates thoſe of the military department; and the finances are regulated by the treaſury courts. The higheſt court in the kingdom, and from which no appeal can be made, is the Caſa da Supplicacao; the higheſt tribunal from which appeals lie, is the Council of the Palace. In this country, however, it would ſeem that the law proceedings were leſs intricate than in our own, as all their laws are contained in three duodecimo volumes.

Revenues. Theſe amount to about three millions and a half annually, and ariſe from the duties on goods exported and imported, which are exceſſive, and collected in the worſt manner, viz. by being farmed out. Bad as matters are in this reſpect, however, it is ſaid that if the miniſtry

ſtry ſhould ſucceed in their projects of forming excluſive companies to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the ſubjects would be able to bear theſe taxes without murmuring. All foreign merchandiſe in Portugal pays 23 *per cent*, and fiſh from Newfoundland 25 *per cent*. Thoſe taken in the ſeas adjacent to Portugal pay no leſs than 27 *per cent*; and there is a duty of 10 *per cent* upon all lands and cattle that are ſold. The king is grand maſter of the ſeveral orders of knighthood in the kingdom, and draws a conſiderable revenue from them. The revenue is alſo greatly augmented ſince the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits; and the king is allowed by the Pope what money ariſes from indulgencies for eating fleſh at prohibited times, &c.

Military Strength by Sea and Land. Portugal, once ſo celebrated in naval affairs, and the firſt modern nation who made any attempts towards geographical diſcoveries, is now entirely fallen from her ancient character in this reſpect, as well as degenerated from the valour for which ſhe was ſo remarkable at that time. The kingdom now depends principally on Great Britain for aſſiſtance and protection; though the ſame friendſhip does not ſubſiſt between the two courts as formerly. The fleet and army of Portugal are therefore very inconſiderable; the former amounting only to 17 ſhips of war, including frigates, and the latter being ſcarce worth conſideration.

Royal Titles. The king of Portugal was not long ago complimented by the Pope with the title of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty. His other titles are, king of Portugal and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſt, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. His eldeſt ſon is ſtiled Prince of Braſil.

Arms. Theſe are argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed ſalter-wiſe, and pointed, ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules, charged with ſeven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The two ſupporters are winged dragons, and the creſt of a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the baſs of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the firſt flower de luce, veſt, for the Order of Aviez, and the ſecond patee, gules, for the order of Chriſt. Each king aſſumes a new motto; but the words *pro rege et grege*, "for the king and the people," are often made choice of.

Orders of Nobility and Knighthood. The orders of nobility in Portugal, are much the ſame with thoſe of Spain; and there are the three following orders of knighthood: 1. The Order of *Avis*, or *Aviez*, inſtituted in 1147, by king Alphonſus Henricus, as a military and religious eſtabliſhment, on occaſion of his taking the city of Evora from the Moors. It was made ſubject to the Order of Calatrava in 1213; but its independence was reſtored by Don John of Portugal. 2. The Order of St. Dennis was inſtituted in 1310, by king Dennis I. who ſuppoſed, that, under the protection of his nameſake St. Dennis, he had proved victorious over the Moors. None are admitted till they have proved the gentility of their blood; and at their entrance, they muſt profeſs chaſtity, hoſpitality, and obedience. The enſign of the order is a ſword, the habit white, and Dalmela is their principal convent. They were endowed with very great privileges by their founder. 3. The Order of Chriſt was inſtituted by the ſame monarch in 1317, in order to engage the nobility to aſſiſt him more effectually in the expulſion of the Moors. The knights obtained poſſeſſions, and till the year 1522, had

had the privilege of electing their own grand maſter, when that office was conferred by Pope Adrian VI. on the king and his ſucceſſors to the crown. Beſides theſe orders, the knights of Malta have 23 commanderies in this kingdom. The Portugueſe orders have likewiſe ſome commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but they are in little eſtimation.

Hiſtory. As this kingdom was anciently accounted a part of Spain, the early periods of its hiſtory are not diſtinct from thoſe of that country. The modern kingdom was originally much ſmaller than it is at preſent, and all hiſtorians agree that it originated from a province, beſtowed by Alonſo king of Leon and Caſtile, upon an illuſtrious ſtranger, Don Henry, which the latter had conquered from the Moors, and with which he alſo gave him in marriage his daughter Donna Thereſa, and along with theſe gifts he beſtowed upon him alſo the title of *Count.* Authors are much divided in their opinions concerning the time when this ſtranger came into the country, or indeed who he was; but by the moſt probable accounts, he was a grandſon of Robert the firſt duke of Burgundy, and that the time of the province being conferred upon him was the year 1091.

The territory aſſigned by Alonſo to Don Henry was but ſmall, but ſo pleaſant and fertile, that it obtained the name of *Merdulla Hiſpanico, the Marrow of Spain;* and the two ſovereigns fixed their reſidence at Guimaraez, a town pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river Ave. Here are ſtill to be ſeen the remains of an ancient palace belonging to the counts of Portugal; and, in conſideration of this having been once the capital of the country, king Dennis granted the inhabitants an immunity from taxes, which they ſtill enjoy. Henry, however, did not ſit down contented with the dominions he had already got, but employed himſelf in wars with the Moors, againſt whom he is related to have performed many great exploits. He died in 1112, and left the government to his ſon Don Alonſo Enriquez, then an infant of three years of age. During his minority, the adminiſtration devolved upon his mother Thereſa, who aſſumed the title of queen. For nine years matters went on very ſmoothly, but after this period, Thereſa having ſet up ſome claims to part of the Caſtilian dominions, was threatened with a war which would undoubtedly have proved fatal to the new kingdom, had not an inſurrection among the Caſtilians luckily put an end to all apprehenſions from that quarter. She had afterwards, however, the misfortune to quarrel with her ſon Don Alonſo, with whom ſhe entered into a war, but was defeated, taken priſoner, and confined for life. The new ſovereign made ſeveral attempts upon the kingdom of Galicia, but was at laſt obliged to conclude a peace, and that the more eſpecially as his territories were invaded by the Moors. The number of theſe invaders was ſo great, that there would have been but little hopes of ſubduing them, had not a plague broken out in the Mooriſh army, by which they were obliged to retreat; and then Don Alonſo reduced ſeveral places belonging to them. But no ſooner was the ſovereign of Portugal freed from this enemy, than a new one ſtarted up. This was no other than the king of Leon and Caſtile, who had aſſumed the title of *Emperor of the Spains*, and now broke into the Portugueſe territories, deſtroying every thing with fire and ſword; and though a conſiderable part of his army was cut off, this did not prevent him from marching directly towards him; but at laſt an accomodation

was accompliſhed by the interceſſion of the Pope's legate, on condition of the mutual reſtoration of conqueſts and priſoners on both ſides.

The Moors were now ſo much alarmed at the progreſs made by the arms of the Chriſtians, that Ali Texefien, the principal Mooriſh potentate in Barbary, reſolved upon an invaſion of their territories. With this view he commanded his lieutenant Iſhmael to aſſemble all the forces he could collect in Spain, and drive the Chriſtians beyond the river Douro; and to aſſiſt him in the execution of this ſcheme, a conſiderable body of troops was ſent from Barbary. The Mooriſh army greatly outnumbered that of the Portugueſe, and ſo confident were the former of victory, that they divided their forces into twelve bodies, that ſo they might, as they ſuppoſed, prevent the flight of their enemies. Inſtead of this, however, they were overthrown with prodigious ſlaughter, and a vaſt number of priſoners taken, among whom were 1000 Chriſtians; and theſe with their families were ſettled in the dominions of Portugal.

This ſignal victory was gained in the year 1139; and in conſequence of it Don Alonſo was proclaimed king by his ſoldiers, and retained the title ever after. The next ſtep of Don Alonſo was to endeavour to curb the overgrown power of the emperor of Spain, for which purpoſe he entered into an alliance with Don Raymond count of Barcelona, and regent of the kingdom of Arragon, and both invaded Caſtile at the ſame time, but in different places. Both enterpriſes proved unſucceſsful, and while the two princes were contending with each other, the Portugueſe dominions were invaded by the Moors, who took the ſtrong fortreſs of Leyria, before Don Alonſo could march to its reſcue. This they demoliſhed, after maſſacring all the garriſon; but next year it was rebuilt ſtronger than before, and the war continued with various ſucceſs till the year 1145, when the king fortunately made himſelf maſter of Santereen, a ſtrong fortreſs about twelve miles from the city of Liſbon, by which conqueſt a conſiderable tract of country was likewiſe added to his dominions, and a ſtrong barrier gained. This new conqueſt was followed by a formal coronation as king of Portugal, and a renounciation of all dependence on the king of Spain; Alonſo declaring, that if any of his ſucceſſors ſhould condeſcend to do homage, or to pay tribute to the Spaniſh monarch, they ſhould be deemed unworthy of the crown of Portugal. Next year he recovered the city of Liſbon from the Moors, and concerning the particulars of this event, there are many fables. The moſt probable account is, that having undertaken the ſiege with a ſmall number of forces, he made very little progreſs, until luckily a fleet of adventurers from England, Flanders, Germany, and France, on an expedition to Paleſtine, landed at the mouth of the Tajo, and granted him their aſſiſtance, as being not foreign to their deſign of making war upon the Infidels. By their aſſiſtance the city was ſpeedily reduced, and Alonſo ſoon made himſelf maſter of twelve other places of importance. For many years this monarch proved to be ſucceſsful in all his undertakings, obtained a confirmation of his regal dignity from the Pope, extending his dominions over four of the ſix provinces which compoſe the preſent kingdom of Portugal. At laſt he unluckily quarrelled with his ſon-in-law Don Ferdinand, king of Leon. In this war he beſieged and took the city of Badajos, but was no ſooner maſter of it, than he was inveſted by Don Ferdinand with a numerous army. Alonſo attempted to draw out his forces; but, in the attempt, had the misfor-

tune to break his leg, by reaſon of which accident he was taken priſoner, and continued lame all the reſt of his life. Neither this, however, nor his advanced age, could prevent him from undertaking new expeditions, and expoſing himſelf again to the toils and dangers of a martial life. A quarrel between the kings of Leon and Caſtile ſeemed to afford him an opportunity of ſhaking off the diſagreeable burthen of doing homage for his dominions to the former, which he had inſiſted upon; but the event ſtill proved unfortunate. The king of Caſtile having aſked Alonſo's aſſiſtance, the latter ſent his ſon Don Sancho with a formidable army, but he was entirely defeated by Ferdinand before he had time to join his allies. The prince attempted to repair his misfortune, by recruiting his forces as expeditiouſly as poſſible; but Ferdinand adviſed, and prevailed with him to turn his arms againſt the Moors, whom he repreſented as careleſs, and not expecting any danger. Don Sancho, upon this, made a ſudden irruption into Andaluſia, and proceeded as far as one of the ſuburbs of Seville. On his return he was attacked by a numerous army of Moors, but entirely defeated them, after which he was allowed to proceed on his way to Portugal, where he arrived laden with ſpoil.

In 1184, Yuſef the king of Morocco, who had long attempted to ſubdue the Chriſtians by ſending over armies under the command of his generals, now came over in perſon, attended by an innumerable multitude, with whom he carried every thing before him as far as the Tajo. Here his progreſs was effectually ſtopped by Don Sancho, who overthrew his army with vaſt ſlaughter, the king himſelf being killed in the engagement. Next year Don Alonſo died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Don Sancho, who proved one of the beſt princes that ever ſat on the throne of Portugal. Though before his acceſſion to the crown he ſhewed himſelf rather of a martial diſpoſition than otherwiſe, yet no ſooner was he become maſter of the kingdom, than he applied almoſt entirely to the reparation of thoſe cities which had ſuſtained moſt damage in the wars that had taken place already. Hence he obtained the title of the father of his country, and the reſtorer of cities. The only warlike enterpriſes in which he engaged were the reduction of the cities of Silves and Elvas. The former he accompliſhed by the aſſiſtance of ſome adventurers going to the Holy Land; the latter by himſelf. At his death he left a very conſiderable treaſure, though he had all along been accounted liberal rather than avaricious. He was buried, according to the orders he left, with very little pomp, and when his body was taken up 400 years afterwards, by order of Don Emanuel, in order to be put in another tomb, it was found to be uncorrupted.

From the time of Don Sancho till the year 1289, the hiſtory of Portugal affords nothing of moment. At this time the throne was in the poſſeſſion of king Dennis, who had long wars with Caſtile; and though frequent reconciliations took place betwixt the two crowns, yet they were never ſincere, nor of any long continuance. At laſt, in the reign of Don John I. the kingdom of Portugal was invaded by Juan of Caſtile, who pretended a right to the crown. Though the whole force of Caſtile was employed in this expedition, yet if we may believe the Portugueſe hiſtorians, the city of Elvas was beſieged unſucceſsfully; which enraged Don Juan to ſuch a degree, that, next year, he entered the Portugueſe terrritories with a deſign to ſpread deſtruction wherever he came. Having therefore collected an army of 30,000 men, he invaded Portu-

gal,

gal, took and deſtroyed ſeveral places, while the Portugueſe monarch, having only a ſmall army, was obliged to remain a quiet ſpectator of his devaſtations, expecting ſome ſuccours from England. As theſe did not arrive in time, however, he ventured an engagement with the forces he had; and, notwithſtanding his inferiority in numbers, gained a complete victory. After this he invaded the kingdom of Caſtile, gained another victory, and obliged the Caſtilians to conſent to a three years truce; and this was ſoon after changed into a laſting peace.

King John, now freed from any diſturbance from his Caſtilian neighbours, undertook an expedition againſt the Moors of Barbary; but before he ſet out upon this adventure, his queen Philippa (daughter of John duke of Lancaſter) died of grief at the thoughts of his abſence. In his enterpriſe, however, he proved ſucceſsful, and took the city of Ceuta from the Moors, almoſt at the firſt aſſault; but ſcarce had he left the country, when the princes of Barbary formed a league for the recovery of it: and, though they were defeated by the young princes of Portugal, whom John again ſent into Barbary, yet the keeping of it was found to be ſo troubleſome, that ſome of the counſellors were of opinion that it ought to be demoliſhed. The king himſelf thought otherwiſe, and therefore ſtrengthened the fortifications, augmenting his army in that country to 6000 foot, and 2500 horſe, which he ſuppoſed would be ſufficient to defend the place againſt all the attacks of the Infidels. After his death, in 1428, his ſon and ſucceſſor Edward undertook an expedition into Africa, of which the city of Tangier was the object; but this proved exceedingly unfortunate, the Portugueſe being ſo ſhut up, that they were obliged to make an offer of Ceuta for liberty to return. This propoſal was accepted, and the king's ſon, Don Ferdinand, was left as an hoſtage for the performance of the agreement. The event gives a very unfavourable idea either of the juſtice or humanity of the king and his council; for they conſtantly refuſed to deliver up the place, and thus left the unhappy prince to his fate, in the hands of Barbarians and Infidels. Many attempts indeed were made for recovering him by force; but before any thing could be accompliſhed, the king died, after which the ſcheme was no more heard of. The war indeed continued at intervals, but with very little ſucceſs on the part of the Portugueſe; and, till the year 1497, their hiſtory affords nothing of any conſequence. For ſome years previous to this, indeed, they had applied themſelves to the improvement of navigation, and had made ſeveral ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa; but, in the year abovementioned, they doubled the Cape of Good Hope under Vaſquez de Gama, making good their paſſage to the Eaſt Indies, and returning to their native country, after a voyage of two years. A great proportion of the ſhip's company periſhed on this occaſion, for out of 148, whom De Gama took out with him, only 55 returned; however, he was rewarded with the higheſt honours, made count of Videguiera, admiral of the Indies, and this office made hereditary in his family.

The diſcovery of the Eaſt Indies had effects upon Portugal very much ſimilar to thoſe of the diſcovery of America in Spain. There was now a continual draught of the moſt bold and ſpirited adventurers to theſe diſtant regions, from whence very few returned; the accumulation of riches, and the introduction of foreign luxuries enervated the nation, and corrupted the manners of the people; which general effeminacy was augmented by the numerous ſettlements on the weſtern

coaſts

coaſts of Africa. The king indeed had the honour of beginning a correſpondence with the emperor of Abyſſinia, and gained ſome advantages over the Moors in Barbary; but neither of theſe were attended with any beneficial conſequence; for the whole kingdom was now ſo thoroughly pervaded by jealouſy, envy, and every kind of vice, that the people could neither be unanimous among themſelves, nor behave as they ought to have done to other nations.

In this wretched ſtate of degeneracy, the Portugueſe allowed themſelves to be perſuaded that it would be for their advantage to have the inquiſition ſet up among them. This happened according to ſome in the year 1525, or, as others ſay, in 1535; and as a famine happened to ceaſe a ſhort time after the infernal tribunal was introduced, the prieſts took care to confirm the ignorant multitude in the belief of its being a bleſſing from heaven. It was not long, however, before they perceived too well what kind of a bleſſing it was likely to prove; but it was then too late, and the people were forced to ſubmit to the yoke till more enlightened times ſet them at liberty.

All this time the Portugueſe had endeavoured by the moſt romantic exertions of valour to eſtabliſh an empire in the Eaſt Indies, and had indeed formed many ſettlements; but ſo little regard had they paid to the good will of the natives, or to the dictates of juſtice or humanity, that a reſolution was formed of expelling them at once. This ſcheme had been firſt projected by Campſon, ſultan of the Mamalukes in Egypt; but as his affairs had not allowed him to attempt the execution of it, Solyman, who was no leſs diſpleaſed with them than Campſon, reſolved to drive them from their territories where they tyrannized ſo intolerably. By his orders, the baſhaw of Egypt was to employ the whole ſtrength of his dominions againſt the Portugueſe, and in conſequence of this, he appeared in the Red Sea with a greater armament than had ever before been ſeen in this part of the world. Four thouſand janiſſaries, and 16,000 other troops were employed on this occaſion; but the valour and military ſkill of the Europeans proved ſuperior to all their numbers. On the African continent alſo the arms of the Portugueſe were ſucceſsful; the king of Fez being baffled in an attempt on the city of Safi, and freſh quarrels breaking out among the Mooriſh princes, gave an opportunity to the Chriſtians to act more upon the offenſive than they had formerly done. For a long time indeed their ſituation had been very precarious; and it was owing only to the quarrels of the Moors among themſelves that they had preſerved any footing in the country. Whenever the *Cheriffs*, or Mooriſh chieftains quarrelled with one another, one of the parties was always ſure to call in the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe, who thus ſaw them continually deſtroy each other. At laſt it was found, that even this was dangerous in the main to the affairs of the Chriſtians; for the Moors were thus taught the Portugueſe diſcipline, and always, after having cemented their quarrels, became more dangerous enemies than ever. The king therefore, John III. apprehending that the conqueſt of Barbary was impracticable, began to limit his deſires to the preſervation of the few fortreſſes he ſtill poſſeſſed, and by this prudent reſolution diſguſted the greateſt part of his ſubjects. Being thus freed from the continual wars with theſe Barbarians, which his predeceſſors had ſo long kept up, this monarch applied himſelf to the eſtabliſhment of the colony of Braſil, which he brought into a very good ſtate, cauſing ſeveral ſtrong towns to be built there, and taking every poſſible method to encourage the converſion

converſion of the natives to Chriſtianity. He alſo made many excellent regulations for the good of his ſubjects, and deſigned to have introduced a reformation in the religious houſes, but was prevented by death from executing this, and other great deſigns. After his death, the adminiſtration devolved upon the queen, grandmother to young Sebaſtian the heir apparent to the crown. Under her adminiſtration, the Portugueſe affairs were conducted with great prudence; the Moors, who had made an attempt upon one of the African cities, were repulſed, and the dominions in that part of the world put into a ſtate of ſecurity. In a ſhort time, however, the natural averſion of the nobility to be governed by a woman, and the turbulent diſpoſition of moſt of them, created ſuch diſſenſions and diſguſts, that of her own accord ſhe reſigned the government into the hands of Don Henry the king's brother. By him the young prince was put into the hands of two tutors, who totally marred his education; the one inculcating upon him that the only virtue of a king was courage, and that danger ought never to be avoided upon any occaſion; the other, inſtead of inculcating upon him the knowledge of the true religion, took care only to inſpire him with an utter averſion againſt Infidels; ſo that, betwixt the two, he was thoroughly prepared for bringing on the diſaſter which followed. By this prepoſterous education, becoming raſh, inconſiderate, and headſtrong, he was led to undertake an expedition into Africa, where his army was totally deſtroyed, and himſelf in all probability killed, as he never was heard of more. This ill-fated expedition he had undertaken in ſpite of all the advice that could be given him to the contrary, either by friends or foes. The king of Morocco himſelf had written him a letter upon the ſubject; the king of Spain ſent ambaſſadors to him, and all his own friends uſed their utmoſt endeavours to diſſuade him, but to no purpoſe. The army he took along with him on this occaſion conſiſted of 9000 Portugueſe foot, 3000 Germans, 700 Italians commanded by Sir Thomas Strekeley an Engliſh exile, but remarkably brave, and 300 volunteers; all of whom were killed or taken priſoners, except about 50 men.

By this dreadful diſaſter, the kingdom of Portugal, from being one of the firſt European States, ſunk at once into the loweſt rank. All the young nobility were cut off, or carried into ſlavery; the kingdom was deprived of men, money, and reputation; ſo that Don Henry, the brother of Sebaſtian, on whom the crown now devolved, found himſelf in a very diſagreeable ſituation. He enjoyed the crown, however, in peace all his lifetime; but, after his death, Philip king of Spain ſet up a claim to the ſovereignty, and quickly enforced it by the power of his arms. His ſchemes were facilitated by the treachery of the regents, who took the moſt ſhameful methods of putting the kingdom into his hands. Under pretence of inſpecting the magazines, they took out ſome of the powder, and mixed the reſt with ſand; an agent was appointed to go to France for ſuccours, from whence they knew he could not return in time; they diſſolved the Sates as ſoon as they ſaw that they were determined to maintain the liberty of the nation, and they ſent off ſuch of the nobility as they ſuſpected to diſtant countries.

Thus Philip, finding every thing in his favour, was encouraged to puſh on his enterpriſe with the greateſt vigour. The duke of Alva was commanded to invade Portugal at the head of 20,000 men; and as there was neither power nor intention on the part of the governors to reſiſt, the whole ſoon fell an eaſy prey to his army. All the foreign

ſettlements

ſettlements ſubmitted at the ſame time, excepting the iſlands of Madeira; and theſe, that of St Michael only excepted, held out for Don Antonio, whom the people, finding themſelves betrayed, had placed upon the throne, until they were totally reduced, and the French fleet, who came to their aſſiſtance, entirely defeated and diſperſed.

Philip made his entry into Liſbon ſoon after the conqueſt of the kingdom; but though he endeavoured as much as poſſible to conciliate the affections of the people, he found it altogether impoſſible. Though laviſh of honours and preferments to the laſt degree, he found the nation ſtill diſſatisfied; and what was worſe, his profuſion in this reſpect put it out of the power of his ſucceſſors to be generous in the ſame way, as the revenues of the crown were waſted in ſuch a manner that nothing more could be granted; and thus, while a few were grateful, a vaſt number of others were diſcontented. His government was likewiſe diſturbed by Don Antonio, who ſtill retained the title of king of Portugal. On the conqueſt of this kingdom by Philip of Spain, he had withdrawn to France, where he was aſſiſted by a fleet of 60 ſail, with a good body of troops; but they were defeated by the Spaniards off the Terceras. All the officers and gentlemen taken upon this occaſion were beheaded, and a great number of the common people hanged. Don Antonio, however, ſtill kept poſſeſſion of ſome places, coined money, and in ſeveral other reſpects exerciſed the functions of a king; though at laſt he was forced to retire, and it was not without difficulty that he eſcaped to France. From thence he paſſed over into England, where he was ſupported by queen Elizabeth, and a fleet and army ſent to his aſſiſtance under Sir John Norris, and the celebrated Sir Francis Drake. Don Antonio himſelf attempted to borrow 200,000 ducats from Muley Hamet, king of Fez and Morocco, but Philip prevented this by ſurrendering the city of Arzila to the Moors. Diſputes between the Engliſh commanders, and other perverſe accidents, alſo prevented the ſucceſs of the enterpriſe; ſo that the unfortunate Antonio was obliged to take refuge in England. Meeting here with little reſpect, he withdrew into France, where he died in great poverty and diſtreſs; but had the title of *king* given him upon his tomb-ſtone. He had preſerved a great intereſt in Portugal as long as he lived, and drawn immenſe ſums of money from thence, all which had been ſquandered in fruitleſs negociations, or ineffectual attempts to regain his ſovereignty.

The death of Don Antonio did not conciliate the affections of the Portugueſe to their new maſters. They were always ready to liſten to any thing which could in the remoteſt degree evince their right to ſhake off the yoke; and the uncertain accounts which had been given of Don Sebaſtian's death furniſhed an opportunity for ſeveral impoſtors to aſſume his name and character. It is certain indeed that no perſon was witneſs to the death of this monarch; and though a dead body was ſent to Philip as that of Sebaſtian, it was ſo diſfigured with wounds, that it could not be known. About 20 years after his defeat, a perſon appeared at Venice, who pretended to be the unfortunate prince himſelf. He ſaid that he had preſerved his life and liberty by hiding himſelf among thoſe ſlain in the battle; that he had afterwards wandered for ſome time in diſguiſe in Africa, but had found means to return to Algarve, whence he gave Don Henry notice of his ſafety; but finding himſelf in danger, and unwilling to diſturb the peace of the kingdom, he had from that time wandered about in exile. When examined cloſely,

ly, he gave ſuch a diſtinct and minute account of the tranſactions that had paſſed between him and the republic, that the commiſſioners were aſtoniſhed, and could not declare him to be an impoſtor; nor did any deciſion follow, though the prince of Orange ſent Don Chriſtopher, the ſon of Don Antonio, to Venice, to demand a diſcuſſion of the point. The unfortunate object of this inquiry, however, paid dear for the title he aſſumed, being impriſoned, ſent to the galleys, and at laſt removed to a caſtle in Spain, where he was never heard of more. All the cruelty with which he was treated could never make him either deny that he was Sebaſtian, or ſhake his fortitude, of which he appeared to poſſeſs a remarkable ſhare. Once he was publicly led in an ignominious manner through the ſtreets of Naples, and it was proclaimed before him that he was an impoſtor who aſſumed the name of Don Sebaſtian; upon hearing which, he gravely ſaid, "And ſo I am." When he next heard it affirmed in the ſame proclamation that he was a Calabrian, he ſaid with equal tranquillity, "It is falſe."

No inſurrections were made in favour of this perſon, though one was attempted at Liſbon, and a ridiculous accuſation of his being a magician, inſtead of making it believed that he was an impoſtor, reflected diſgrace upon his accuſers. The ill-judged expedition of Philip againſt England in the mean time utterly ruined Portugal, while it exhauſted all the other parts of his dominions. Thus they became expoſed to the depredations of the Britiſh, who made war upon them in hopes of plundering their Indian fleets. This raiſed loud clamours againſt the king, who now wanted power to protect them. In his attempts for this purpoſe he fell upon a moſt ruinous expedient, viz. that of borrowing money from the nobility upon the cuſtoms; the conſequence of which was, that theſe branches of the revenue became mortgaged, and continue ſo to this day; ſo that the merchants are oppreſſed, and the king receives nothing. This expedient failing, a tax of three *per cent.* was next impoſed by way of ſhip-money, for the defence of the coaſts, and the commerce of the country. For ſome years this was applied in a proper manner, but at laſt was made part of the ordinary revenue, and went into the king's exchequer, without any account. Other branches of the revenue came next to be diverted from their proper uſe, particularly that for repairing fortifications; ſo that though the money was rigorouſly levied, the walls of the fortreſſes were allowed to decay. The ſame happened to that branch appointed for the maintenance of the conqueſts in Africa, and other diſtant parts of the world. Thus the whole kingdom was evidently impoveriſhed during the reign of Philip, though his adminiſtration was much ſuperior to that of his Spaniſh ſucceſſors. Philip III. did not pay a viſit to Portugal until after he had been 20 years in poſſeſſion of the throne; and the only conſequence of this was, that the people of Liſbon impoveriſhed themſelves by their extravagance in receiving him. In the ſucceeding reigns things went on worſe and worſe. Ormus was loſt in the eaſt, and Brazil in the weſt; and the loſs of a fleet ſent to eſcort that from Goa almoſt gave the finiſhing ſtroke to their affairs. All this time alſo the people had been oppreſſed in the moſt intolerable manner by the Spaniſh viceroys, ſo that at laſt their yoke became altogether intolerable, and a revolt was not only allowable but neceſſary. The revolution was accompliſhed in 1640, by John duke of Braganza, who was choſen king by the almoſt unanimous voice of the nation. The Spaniards did not fail indeed to make attempts for the

recovery

recovery of their authority, but no battle was fought on that account till the year 1644, when an army of about 7000 Spaniards was entirely defeated by about an equal number of Portugueſe; but after the death of the king, which happened in 1655, the war was carried on with great vigour. At laſt victory declared in favour of the Portugueſe, by the deciſive battle of Montes Claros in 1665, ſince which time the kingdom of Portugal has remained independent, and was declared to be ſo in the year 1668; though it is very probable that the people could not have maintained their ground againſt their enemies, had not the latter been engaged in foreign wars, which drew off their attention. The recovery of their liberty, however, was not attended with the recovery of that conſequence in the political ſcale of Europe which they once enjoyed; and had not Britain, for commercial reaſons, kept their powerful neighbours in awe, there is not the leaſt reaſon to doubt that they would long ago have been ſwallowed up, and their kingdom become a province of Spain. Of this indeed we have a convincing proof from the laſt invaſion by the Spaniards, which took place in the year 1762, on account of the refuſal of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty to accede to the alliance of France and Spain againſt Britain. As the Britiſh were thus the real adverſaries, the vengeance of the Spaniards was chiefly directed againſt the cities of Oporto and Liſbon where they uſually reſided. To accompliſh their deſigns againſt theſe, they entered Portugal by three places at once. The firſt body entered by the north eaſt angle, taking the road to Miranda. The city fell into their hands by reaſon of the exploſion of a powder magazine, which made ſeveral breaches in the wall. From thence they marched to Braganza, which ſurrendered in ſix days. Moncorvo was taken with equal eaſe, ſo that they now became maſters of almoſt all the province of Tralos Montes. The city of Oporto was now in ſuch imminent danger, that the Britiſh merchants were preparing to remove their effects, when the career of the Spaniards was ſtopped by the peaſants, who, having aſſembled under the conduct of ſome Britiſh officers, ſeized a difficult paſs, and drove the enemy back to Moncorvo. The ſecond body, which entered the province of Beira, was attended with equal ſucceſs. Being joined by the greateſt part of the army in Tralos Montes, they laid ſiege to Almeida, the beſt provided, and ſtrongeſt fortreſs in all Portugal; and this, like the others already mentioned, was ſurrendered in a ſhort time. After this they overran the whole diſtrict of Caſtel Branco, one of the beſt in the province of Beira, making their way ſouthward to the banks of the Tagus. The third army aſſembled on the borders of Eſtremadura, with a deſign to invade the province of Alentejo; and had they been joined by the others, there is not the leaſt reaſon to doubt that they would have forced their way to Liſbon in ſpite of all oppoſition; or, had they acted ſeparately, it might have diſtracted the people ſo much, that ſome other body of troops might have effected the ſame purpoſe; but by this time the Count de la Lippe Buckebourg, a gallant and experienced officer, was arrived in Portugal, and took upon him the ſupreme command, in conſequence of which the whole fortune of the war was inſtantly changed. To prevent their further progreſs, the count diſpatched brigadier-general Burgoyne to attack an advanced body of Spaniards which lay on their frontiers, in a town called Valencia de Alcantara. This was ſurpriſed, and the general taken who was intended to command the enterpriſe, and one of the beſt regiments in the Spaniſh ſervice entirely deſtroyed.

Thus the invaſion of the province of Alentejo was prevented; but that diviſion which acted in Caſtel Branco had made themſelves maſters of ſome important paſſes, which they obliged the Portugueſe to abandon. The combined army of Britiſh and Portugueſe pretended to retire, in order to draw them into the mountainous parts of the country. They made an attack upon the rear of the allies, but were repulſed with loſs; they continued, however, maſters of the country, and had only to croſs the Tagus in order to take up their quarters in Alentejo. This the count reſolved to prevent; and general Burgoyne, being employed in the ſervice, committed the execution to colonel Lee, afterwards a general in the American cauſe. By him the Spaniards were attacked on the night of the 6th of October, and routed with conſiderable ſlaughter, their magazines deſtroyed; and all this accompliſhed with ſcarce any loſs on the part of the Britiſh. The ſeaſon was now too far advanced to make any new attempts, great quantities of rain fell, and the Spaniards every where retired to their own country; and before the return of the ſeaſon for action, the preliminary articles of peace between the courts of Britain and Spain were agreed upon.

ITALY.

Extent and Situation. ITALY is 600 miles in length, and 400 in breadth. It is ſituate between 38 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and between 6 and 19 of eaſt longitude. The form of the country renders it extremely difficult to aſcertain its extent and dimenſions; but according to the beſt accounts, it is about 750 miles in length, extending from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy to thoſe of the dominions of the States of Venice about 260 miles, which is its greateſt breadth; though in ſome parts it is ſcarcely 100.

Boundaries. Nature ſeems to have fixed the boundaries of Italy. The eaſt is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, (or Adriatic Sea); the ſouth and weſt by the Mediterranean; and on the north it has the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending the iſlands in the Mediterranean, are divided in the following table, viz.

Italy.	Countries Names	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
To the king of Sardinia	Piedmont	6020	148	99	Turin
	Savoy	3573	88	60	Chamberry
	Montferrat	456	42	23	Caſal
	Alleſſandrine	204	26	21	Alexandria
	Oneglia	133	25	7	Oneglia
	Sardinia I.	6610	136	56	Cagliari
To the king of Naples	Naples	22,010	275	210	Naples
	Sicily I.	9400	189	93	Palermo
To the Emperor	Milan	5420	156	70	Milan
	Mantua	710	48	26	Mantua
	Mirandola	122	20	10	Mirandola
	Pope's dominions	14,349	236	144	Rome N. lat. 42-00. E. lon. 12-40.
To their reſpective princes	Tuſcany	6642	116	95	Florence
	Maſſa	82	16	12	Maſſa
	Parma	1226	48	38	Parma
	Modena	1562	64	39	Modena
	Piombino	100	23	19	Piombino
	Monaco	25	13	5	Monaco
Republics	Lucca	286	29	15	Lucca
	St Marino	9			St Marino
	Genoa	2400	161	24	Genoa
To France	Corſica I.	2522	90	38	Baſtia
To the republic of Venice	Venice	8435	176	96	Venice
	Iſtria P.	1245	7	33	Capo d'Iſtria
	Dalmatia P.	1410	134	20	Zara
	Iſles of Dalmatia	1364			
Iſlands in the Venetian dominions	Cephalonia	429	42	18	Cephalonia
	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	40	11	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacyn	122	23	13	Zant
	St Maura	57	13	8	St Maura
	Little Cephalonia Ithaca olim	15	8	4	
	Total—	75,117			

Air, Soil, &c. Here there is the greateſt variety of air that perhaps can be met with in any country. But Italy in ſome parts bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature; for the Compagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any people on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential, owing to the decreaſe of the number of inhabitants, and ſloth of thoſe who remain, by which the waters have been allowed to ſtagnate, and form marſhes, which infect the air by their putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie in the neighbourhood of the Alps is keen and piercing. The Appennines, which almoſt divide Italy lengthwiſe, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the ſouth being warm, thoſe on the north mild and temperate. Notwithſtanding the

the ſouthern ſituation of the kingdom of Naples, yet there is not much inconveniency felt from the heat, the ſea breezes refreſhing and cooling the air. In general the air of Italy may be ſaid to be dry and pure. The ſoil produces all the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; and each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency and commodity. It produces the moſt delicious wines and fruits, ſuch as citrons, large quantities of cheſnuts, cherries, plumbs, and other fruits in ſuch abundance, that they are of little value to the proprietors. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might have plenty for exportation. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe called Parmeſan, oil, and ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. The animal productions of Italy, either by land or ſea, differ little from thoſe of France and Germany already mentioned.

Sir William Hamilton gives a magnificent deſcription of the beauties of the ſouthern part of this country. Having undertaken a tour through thoſe parts which had ſuffered from the earthquakes in 1783, viz. the two Calabrias, he deſcribes the roads as intolerably bad, but the country the moſt beautiful that can be imagined. The plain of Monteleone, he ſays, is a perfect garden of olive and mulberry, fruit and vine trees; and below theſe the crops of corn, lupins, and other vegetables ſeem to thrive extremely, though covered by a thick ſhade. Here and there are vaſt woods of oak and olive-trees intermixed; the latter being half as big as the oaks themſelves, and more than treble the ſize of thoſe of Campagna Felice. Beſides the ſilk and oil in which this province ſurpaſſes perhaps every other in the world, it abounds with corn, wine, cotton, liquorice, fruit and vegetables of every kind; and he obſerves, that if the population and induſtry of the inhabitants kept pace with the fertility of the ſoil, the revenue of Calabria Ultra might be more than doubled in a very ſhort time. He ſaw, however, whole groves of mulberry-trees, which did not let for more than five ſhillings an acre, though they would have been worth five pounds, had there only been hands to gather the leaves, and attend the ſilk-worms.

Nor is the produce of all kinds of fruit leſs remarkable than the fertility of the ſoil in other reſpects. The owner of a garden near Reggio informed him that it was a bad year when he did not gather from his garden, which was of no great extent, 170,000 lemons, 200,000 oranges, which were found equal to thoſe of Malta, with bergamots in quantity ſufficient to produce 200 bottles of eſſence from their rhind. The great articles of trade at Reggio indeed are ſilk and eſſence of bergamot; no leſs than 100,000 quarts of this laſt being exported annually. The fruit, after taking off the rhind, is given to the cows and oxen; but during that ſeaſon the beef has a ſtrong and diſagreeable flavour of bergamot. In the gardens above mentioned, every fig tree affords two crops annually, one in June, the ſecond in Auguſt.

Mountains. We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains in Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Veſuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples. A deſcription of this volcano, as well as of the higheſt of the Alps, called Mont Blanc, will be given in our account of the natural curioſities.

Rivers and Lakes. The rivers of Italy are the Po, Var, Adige, Trebia, Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary between Italy and the ancient Ciſalpine Gaul. The principal lakes are the Maggiore, Luganó,

Como, Iſco, and Garda in the north; the Perugia, or Thraſimene, famous for the defeat given to the Romans by Hannibal; Bracciana, Terni, and Celano in the middle.

Seas, Gulfs, or Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Straits. The ſeas of Italy are, the Gulf of Venice, (or Adriatic Sea) the ſeas of Naples, Tarento, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Sperzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita, Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Rheggio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume, Cape Spartivento del Alice, Obranto, Ancona, and the Strait of Meſſina between Italy and Sicily. The gulfs and bays in the Italian iſlands are thoſe of Fiorenyo, Baſtia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſo, Bonifacio, Ferro in Corſica, and the Strait of Bonifacio between Corſica and Sardinia; the bays of Cagliari and Ariſtagni, Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia; the gulfs of Meſſina, Melezzo, Palermo, Mayara, Syracuſe and Catania; Cape Leuca in Italy; Faro, Mellezzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Paſſaro, Aleſſia in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone in the iſland of Elba.

Minerals and Metals. Many places in Italy abound in mineral ſprings, ſome of which are very hot, with many of ſulphureous chalybeat and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines of emeralds, lapis lazuli, and agates; with quarries of jaſper, porphyry, and other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper mines are found in a few places; and a mill is erected, near Trivoli in Naples, for forging theſe metals. Sardinia is ſaid to contain mines of gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected. Curious cryſtals and coral are found on the coaſt of Corſica, and beautiful marble, of all kinds, is one of the chief productions of Italy.

Population, Inhabitants, &c. Authors are much divided with reſpect to Italian population, which, in a great meaſure, may be owing to the partiality every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's ſubjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itſelf, by the beſt accounts, contains 300,000 inhabitants, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the number of the country people; and the only information we derive from them is merely a conjectural eſtimate of thoſe who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have ariſen, whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants, though ſome are of opinion that the preſent number exceeds it. It is true, the Campagne di Roma, and ſome other of the moſt beautiful parts of Italy, are at preſent in a manner deſolate; but we are to conſider, that the modern Italians are in a great meaſure free from the continual wars, not to mention the tranſmigration of colonies which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and ſtates now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population, ſo that perhaps it may not be extravagant if we aſſign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants, but ſome late calculations even exceed that number. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have ſuch expreſſive looks, that they have greatly aſſiſted the ideas of their painters. The women are generally well ſhaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, eſpecially of thoſe in high life, are ſaid to be paid very little

little regard to in Italy. Every wife has been repreſented to have her gallant or ciciſbeo, with whom ſhe keeps company, and ſometimes cohabits, without much ceremony, and no offence is taken on either ſide; but this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice, though indeed the repreſentations which have been made by travellers of this ſort appear to be much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the beſt quality of a modern Italian is ſobriety: they ſubmit very patiently to the public government, but diſcover little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more ſuperſtitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native cuſtoms, and ſeem to have no idea of improvement. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many deſcendents of the ancient Romans, yet the inhabitants ſpeak of themſelves as ſucceſſors of the conquerors of the world, and look upon the reſt of mankind with contempt. The dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries; and they effect a medium between the French volatility and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. It cannot be denied, that the Italians excel in fine arts, though they make at preſent but a very inconſiderable figure in the ſciences. They cultivate vocal muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when young, to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.

The Italians, but more eſpecially the Venetians, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other countries. Parents, for inſtance, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away by unſuitable marriage, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire miſtreſſes for them for a month or year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage in many places of Italy is an avowed licenſed trade. The Italian courtezans, or *bona robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief diverſions of the Italians, except religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer gives the following very unfavourable account of the Italians, and their manner of living. "Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodation, but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns; no other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a matraſs of ſtraw, and next to that a dirty ſheet ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp; for a covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches: An Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lie in this manner unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor never once waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here is that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid ſervant if permitted. They never ſcour their pewter; the knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely; they ſend up ten times the quantity you can eat; the ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls, or a turkey roaſted to rags, without ſauce or any kind of herbage; another

ther fowl, ſtewed as they call it; then two moor-fowl; which are all killed after your arrival. All over Italy, at leaſt on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſtringy; you may divide the breaſt of a fowl into as many filaments as you can a half-penny worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of veal or mutton; and generally ſpeaking it is the only eatable morſel that falls in your way. The bread is exceeding bad, and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even bore within the reach of your ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are, the infinite number of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infeſt us by day and night.

Religion. The eſtabliſhed religion of Italy is Roman Catholic, and there is a Court of Inquiſition, though it is now little more than a ſound, ſo that perſons of all religions live unmoleſted in this country, provided no groſs inſult is offered to the eſtabliſhed worſhip. In the introduction we have given an account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of Popery in Italy, from whence it ſpread over all Europe; likewiſe of its decline. The eccleſiaſtical government of Papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his Holineſs, are 70; but that number is ſeldom or never complete. They are appointed by the Pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then Pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the Pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs the Catholic religion. His chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew or near relation, who improves the time of the Pope's reign by amaſſing what he can. When met in a conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to control the Pope in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and have been ſometimes known to prevail. The reign of a Pope is ſeldom of long duration, they being generally old men at the time of their election. The cardinals principally endeavour to diſplay their abilities in the conclave, where many iniquitous ſcenes have been tranſacted, though now leſs enormous than formerly. During the election of a Pope in 1721, the animoſities ran ſo high, that they came to blows with both hands and feet, and threw the ink-ſtandiſhes at each other. We ſhall here give an extract from the creed of Pope Pius XIV. in 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the Proteſtant churches.

1ſt. I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical traditions, and all other conſtitutions of the church of Rome.

2d. I admit the Holy Scriptures in the ſame ſenſe that holy mother church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true ſenſe and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous conſent of the fathers.

3d. I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacraments in the law, truely and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt our Lord, and neceſſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all of them, to every one, namely baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage; and that they do confer grace without ſacrilege; and that of theſe baptiſm, confirmation, and orders may not be repeated. I do alſo receive and admit the received and approved rites of the Catholic church, in her ſolemn adminiſtration of the above ſaid ſacraments.

4th.

4th. I do embrace and receive all and every thing that have been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent, concerning original ſin and juſtification.

5th. I do alſo profeſs, that in the maſs there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly, really, and ſubſtantially the body and blood, together with the ſoul and divinity of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made of the whole ſubſtance of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the wine into the blood; which converſion the Catholic church calls Tranſubſtantiation. I confeſs, that under one kind only, whole and entire, Chriſt and a true ſacrament is taken and received.

6th. I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory, and that the ſouls kept priſoners there do receive help from the ſuffrages of the faithful.

7th. I do likewiſe believe, that the ſaints, reigning together with Chriſt, are to be worſhipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us; and that their relics are to be held in veneration.

8th. I do moſt firmly aſſert, that the image of Chriſt, of the bleſſed virgin the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had and retained; and that due honour and veneration ought to be given them.

9th. I do likewiſe affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Chriſt to the church; and that the uſe of them are very beneficial to Chriſtian people.

10th. I do acknowledge the Holy Catholic and Apoſtolical Roman church to be the mother and miſtreſs of all churches; and I do promiſe and ſwear true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

11th. I do undoubtedly profeſs all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the ſacred canons and œcumenical councils; and eſpecially by the holy ſynod of Trent, and all other things contrary thereto; and all hereſies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathematize.

We have the following account of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence in Italy. "All the nobleſſe of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents in ſack-cloth with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies: but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the croſs; but when the lady mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt."

A long liſt of indulgencies or fees of the Pope's chancery may be ſeen in a book printed by authority of his Holineſs about 150 years ago. It has been tranſlated into Engliſh, under the title of *Rome a great Cuſtom-Houſe for Sin*; from which the following extracts are taken.

ABSO-

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that ſtole holy or conſecrated things out of a holy place, 10s. 6d.
For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9s.
For a layman for murdering a layman, 7s. 6d.
For him that killeth his father, mother, wife, or ſiſter, 10s. 6d.
For laying violent hands on a clergyman, ſo it be without effuſion of blood, 10s. 6d.
For a prieſt that keeps a concubine; as alſo his diſpenſation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.
For him that lyeth with his own mother, ſiſter, or godmother, 7s. 6d.
For him that burns his neighbour's houſe, 12s.
For him that forgeth the Pope's hand, 1l. 7s.
For him that forgeth letters apoſtolical, 1l. 7s.
For him that taketh two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.
For a king for going to the holy ſepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a baſtard to enter all holy orders, 18s.
For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have Chriſtian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to viſit the apoſtolic churches, 18s.
To eat fleſh and white meats in lent, and other faſting days, 10s. 6d.
That a king or queen ſhall enjoy ſuch indulgencies as if they went to Rome, 15l.
For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.
To marry in times prohibited, 2l. 5s.
To eat fleſh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.
Not to be tied to faſting days, 1l. 4s.
For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken ſanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

FACULTIES.

To abſolve all delinquents, 3l.
To diſpenſe with irregularities, 3l.

Archbiſhoprics. There are 38 archbiſhoprics in Italy, but their ſuffragans are created or ſuppreſſed by the Pope as he pleaſes.

Language. The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions; the ground work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily acquired by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect, and great pains taken by the literary ſocieties, which may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent the Tuſcan ſtyle and writing is moſt admired.

Learning, Learned Men, and Artiſts. In the Introduction we have made mention of ſome of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. Since the revival of letters ſome Italians have ſhone in controverſial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by people of their own perſuaſion.

ſuaſion. The mathematics and natural philoſophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral other Italians. Srada is an excellent hiſtorian. And the hiſtory of the council of Trent, by the celebrated Father Paul, is a ſtandard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila have been much commended as hiſtorians by their ſeveral admirers; Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtorian and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit, and the liberality of his ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the proſe writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the moſt pure and correct in point of ſtyle; he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the ſpirit and genius of ancient literature; but among the Italian poets, Dante, Arioſto, and Taſſo are the moſt diſtinguiſhed. There are ſaid to be upwards of a thouſand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent; but Metaſtaſio has acquired great reputation by writing dramatic pieces, ſet to muſic. Sannazarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compoſitions not yielding to the claſſics themſelves. Socinus, who was ſo much diſtinguiſhed by his oppoſition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy. The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but the excellency of their works. The revival of learning, after the taking of Conſtantinople by the Turks, brought in alſo a more correct taſte in the arts, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth and beauty in deſign and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, aſſiſted by the ancients, ſtruck out a nice line in painting, and ſtill ſtands at the head of the painting art, Michael Angelo Biconaroti united in his own perſon, painting, ſculpture, and architecture; the colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio, Romano, Corregio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others are as painters unequalled in their ſeveral manners; the ſame may be ſaid of Correlli and other Italians in muſic. At preſent Italy cannot boaſt of genius in the fine arts equal to any of thoſe above mentioned.

Univerſities. Thoſe of Italy are Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

Antiquities and Curioſities Natural and Artificial. A library might be filled with the deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the country; but the bounds of this work will not admit of enlarging on this ſubject. We can but give a very brief account of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for antiquity or excellence. The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank as a ſpecies of architecture of the moſt ſtriking magnificence. There are at Rome conſiderable remains of that one which was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coliſſeo. Twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by Veſpaſian in this building, and it is ſaid to be capable of containing eighty ſeven thouſand ſpectators ſeated, and twenty thouſand ſtanding. The architecture of this building is perfectly light, and its proportions are ſo juſt, that it does not appear near ſo large as it really is; but it has been ſtripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments at various

times, and by various enemies. The Goths and other Barbarians began its deſtruction, and Popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin; cardinal Farneſe, in particular, robbed it of ſome fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and with infinite pains and labour got away what was practicable of the outſide caſing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farneſe. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the moſt entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of ſteps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble, about a foot and an half high each, and above two feet broad; twenty-two thouſand perſons might be ſeated here at their eaſe, allowing one foot and a half for each perſon. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has lately been repaired with the greateſt care at the expence of the inhabitants; they frequently give public ſpectacles in it, ſuch as horſe races, combats of wild beaſts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are alſo viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples anſwer every idea we can form of the Roman grandeur. The pantheon, which is at preſent converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotundo, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are ſtill left ſeveral of the niches which anciently contained the ſtatues of the Heathen Deities; the outſide of the building is of Tivoli free ſtone, and within it is incruſted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, yet it is very light in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and porphyry, ſloping round towards the centre, where the rain water falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed by a proper drain covered with a ſtone full of holes. The colonade in the front, which conſiſts of ſixteen columns of granite, thirty-ſeven feet high, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle block, and which are of the Corinthian Order, can hardly be viewed without aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a ſingle piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe of Numidian marble, and in the area before the church is a fountain with an antique baſon of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern Barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column erected by Duillius in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians. The ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightening mentioned by Cicero; the very original braſs plates, containing the laws of the twelve tables, and a thouſand other antiquities, ſome of them tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times, not to mention medals and the infinite variety of ſeals and engraved ſtones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many places all over Italy are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and higher empire. The Appian, Flaminian, and Emilian roads, the firſt 200 miles, the ſecond 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire and magnificent. Ruins of villas, reſervoirs,

voirs, bridges, and the like, preſent themſelves all over the country of Italy.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupenduous as thoſe above ground; witneſs the Cloacæ, and the catacombs or repoſitories for dead bodies in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 31 years ſince a painter's apprentice diſcovered the ancient city of Pæſtum, or Poſidonia in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding; ſo indifferent are the Italians about objects of antiquity. This is a new and agreeable diſcovery to the learned. An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, which, in the reign of Nero, was almoſt deſtroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards in the firſt year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. The melted lava, in its courſe, filled up the ſtreets and houſes, in ſome places, to the height of ſixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. This lava is now of a conſiſtency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away; it is compoſed of half vitrified mineral and metallic ſubſtances, which altogether form a cloſe and heavy maſs. In the year 1713, upon digging into theſe parts, ſome part of this unfortunate city was diſcovered, and many antiquities were dug up; but the ſearch was afterwards diſcontinued till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig eighty feet deep perpendicularly, when not only the city appeared, but alſo the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a ſtatue, and the inſcription that decorated the great doors of entrance. They likewiſe found amongſt the ruins of this city multitudes of ſtatues, buſtos, pillars, paintings, manuſcripts, furniture, and various utenſils; and this ſearch is ſtill continued, and we expect many other valuable curioſities may be found. The ſtreets of the town appear to have been quite ſtraight and regular, and the houſes well built and much alike; ſome of the rooms paved with moſaic, others with fine marbles; ſome again with bricks three feet long, and ſix inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up ſo unexpectedly with the melted lava as to prevent the greateſt part of the inhabitants from eſcaping with many of their richeſt effects; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen of ſkeletons found, and but little of gold, ſilver, or precious ſtones.

The town of Pompeii was deſtroyed by the ſame eruption of mount Veſuvius, which occaſioned the deſtruction of Herculaneum. One ſtreet and a few detached buildings of this town have been cleared: the ſtreet is well paved with the ſame kind of ſtone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow cauſeways are raiſed a foot and a half on each ſide, for the conveniency of foot paſſengers. Dr Moor obſerves, that the ſtreet itſelf is not ſo broad as the narroweſt part of the Strand, and is ſuppoſed to have been inhabited by trades people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be ſeen on the pavement. The houſes are ſmall, but give an idea of neatneſs and conveniency. The ſtucco on the walls is ſmooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, moſtly ſingle figures, repreſenting ſome animal: they are tolerably well executed, and on a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear ſurpriſingly freſh. Moſt of the houſes are built on the ſame plan, and have one ſmall room from the paſſage,

which is conjectured to have been the ſhop, with a window to the ſtreet, and a place which ſeems to have been contrived for ſhewing the goods to the greateſt advantage. In another part of the town is a regular building, with a colonade towards the court, ſomething like the ſtyle of the royal exchange in London, but ſmaller. At a conſiderable diſtance from this is a temple of the goddeſs Iſis; the pillars, which are of brick, ſtuccoed like thoſe of the guard-room: but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The beſt paintings hitherto found at Pompeii are thoſe of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls and removed to Portici. Few ſkeletons were found in the ſtreets of this town, but a conſiderable number in the houſes.

With regard to modern curioſities in Italy, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture: each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St Peter at Rome is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric that ever perhaps exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich, beyond imagination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its hiſtory. The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo numerous as the artificial. Mount Veſuvius, which is five Italian miles diſtant from the city of Naples, and mount Etna in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of mount Veſuvius towards the ſea is every where planted with vines and fruit trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom: the circumjacent plain affords a delightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome: the ſouth and weſt ſides of the mountain form very different views, being like the top covered with black cinders and ſtones; the height of mount Veſuvius has been computed to be 3,900 feet above the ſurface of the ſea. It has been a volcano beyond the reach of hiſtory or tradition. A deſcription of its ravages in the year 79 is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but ſmall and moderate; however, then it broke out with accumulated fury, and deſolated the country a great way round. In 1674, there was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it fell at thirty miles diſtance; and a vaſt quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, the aſhes, or rather ſmall cinders, ſhowered down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreets were obliged to uſe umbrellas, or adopt ſome other expedient to guard themſelves againſt them. The tops of the houſes and balconies were covered with theſe cinders; and ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them to the great aſtoniſhment of the ſailors. An eruption happened alſo in the year 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly deſcribed by Sir William Hamilton in the philoſophical tranſactions.

This gentleman, the Britiſh envoy at the court of Naples, has been at great pains to inveſtigate the phenomena of this Volcano. From the time of his arrival at Naples in 1764, indeed he paid particular regard to the ſtate of the mountain at all times, and obſerves, that the ſmoke is much more conſiderable in bad than in fair weather; and the inward exploſions of the mountain are often

often heard at Naples in bad weather, which is ſix miles diſtant. On looking down the mouth from whence the fire iſſues, in fair weather, the ſmoke has ſometimes been ſo little, that he has ſeen a great way down, and obſerved the ſides to be incruſted with ſalts and minerals of various colours, white, green, deep and pale yellow. In bad weather alſo the ſmoke was moiſt, white, and much leſs offenſive than the ſteams which iſſued from the cracks on the ſide of the mountain. The ſigns of an approaching eruption are an increaſe of the ſmoke in fair weather; and after this has continued for ſome time, a puff of black ſmoke is frequently ſeen to ſhoot up in the middle of the white kind to a prodigious height; and theſe puffs are attended with conſiderable exploſions. While Veſuvius was in this ſtate, Sir William aſcended to the top. It was about the beginning of November, and the upper part of the mountain was then covered with ſnow. A little hillock of ſulphur, about ſix feet high, had been thrown up by the mountain, and burned with a blue flame at the top; but while our author was examining this curious phenomenon, a ſudden and violent report was heard, a column of black ſmoke ſhot up with violence, and was followed by a reddiſh flame. A ſhower of ſtones fell, which obliged him to retire; and he informs us, that it is by no means ſafe to approach too near to the mountain in this ſtate, as ſome gentlemen whom he mentions were wounded by the ſtones which were thrown out by an exploſion of this kind. As the eruption proceeds, the ſmoke becomes totally black in the day time, and at night appears like clouds tinged by the ſetting ſun. Afterwards it appears like flame in the night; ſhowers of aſhes are thrown out, earthquakes are produced, and great volleys of red-hot ſtones are diſcharged to an immenſe height in the air. The height and diſtance to which theſe ſtones are thrown is generally in proportion to the magnitude of the volcano which emits them, and hence the exploſions of Veſuvius are for the moſt part leſs terrible than thoſe of Etna, though this is not always the caſe; and the eruption of 1779 from Veſuvius ſeems to have been as violent as we have an account of in any volcano whatever. The largeſt ſtone thrown out by Veſuvius, whoſe dimenſions have been meaſured, was 12 feet in length, and 45 in circumference. It was projected to the diſtance of a quarter of a mile from the place whence it was emitted; but much larger ones have been thrown out from volcanoes of a ſuperior magnitude, and Mr Brydone was aſſured by the Canon Recupero, that he had ſeen ſtones of immenſe magnitude thrown out from Ætna, to the height of more than 7000 feet above the top of the mountain, as he calculated from the time they took in falling. Along with theſe dreadful phenomena, the ſmoke which iſſues from the mountain is ſometimes in a highly electrified ſtate; the ſmall aſhes which the mountain continually throws out, along with the ſtones and cinders, are attracted by the ſmoke, and form with it one vaſt, and to appearance denſe column, from whence continual flaſhes of forked or zig-zag lightning iſſue, ſometimes attended with thunder, and ſometimes not, but equally powerful with the ordinary lightning. This phenomenon has been taken notice of in the accounts of all volcanoes. Pliny mentions it in his account of the great eruption in 79; it has been obſerved in thoſe of the Icelandic volcanoes; in Ætna; and Sir William Hamilton has more than once ſeen it proceed from the ſmoke of Veſuvius.

When the dreadful appearances juſt mentioned have continued for an indefinite time, on ſome occaſions perhaps four or five months, the *lava* begins

begins to make its appearance. This is a ſtream of melted minerals, as we have already obſerved, and which either boils over the top, or burſts out through ſome part of the ſide of the mountain, according to circumſtances. When it is about to burſt out through the ſide, Sir William Hamilton informs us, that the place may be eaſily known, if ſnow happens to be on the mountain at the time, becauſe it will always be melted off at the place whence the lava is about to break out. On the appearance of the lava, the commotions of the mountain generally, though not always ceaſe; and it is obſervable, that if they are not removed, they become much worſe than before; but this never happens except when the lava has not got ſufficient vent.

Our author informs us, that the aſhes which Veſuvius throws out, during an eruption, deſtroy the leaves and vegetation, and are greatly detrimental to vegetation for a year or two; but they are certainly of great ſervice to the land in general, and are to be reckoned among the principal cauſes of that great fertility which is remarkable in the neighbourhood of volcanoes.

The eruption of lava in 1766 took place on the 28th of March, about ſeven at night. The lava began to boil over in one ſtream, but ſoon after divided itſelf into two. It was preceded by a partial earthquake in the neighbourhood of the mountain, occaſioned by a violent exploſion, and a ſhower of red hot ſtones and cinders were thrown up to a conſiderable height. On this occaſion he obſerved, that though the red hot ſtones were thrown up in much greater quantity, and to a more conſiderable height than before the eruption, the report was much leſs conſiderable than it had been ſome days before. The lava had the appearance of a river of red-hot and liquid metal, ſuch as the vitrified matter of the glaſs-houſes, on which were large floating cinders half lighted, and rolling one over another with great precipitation down the ſide of the mountain, forming a moſt beautiful and uncommon caſcade. The colour of the fire was much paler and brighter the firſt night than any of the ſubſequent ones, when it became of a deep red, probably owing, ſays Sir William, to its having been more impregnated with ſulphur at firſt than afterwards. In the day time, unleſs you are very near it, the lava has no appearance of fire, but its courſe is marked by a thick white ſmoke.

Sir William Hamilton remarked at this time, and had occaſion to make the ſame obſervation afterwards, that the mountain ſeemed to ſuſtain a kind of intermiſſion in the violence of its eruptions; and the ſame remark has been made by others who give accounts of this volcano. The heat of the lava was ſuch, that one could not approach nearer than within ten feet of the ſtream, and of ſuch conſiſtence (though it appeared as liquid as water) as almoſt to reſiſt the impreſſion of a long ſtick with which the experiment was made. Large ſtones thrown upon it with all his force did not ſink; but, making a ſlight impreſſion, floated on the ſurface, and were carried out of ſight in a ſhort time; for, notwithſtanding the conſiſtency of the matter, it ran with great velocity; not leſs, in our authors opinion, than that of the river Severn at the paſſage near Briſtol. The ſtream was about ten feet wide at its ſource, but ſoon extended itſelf, dividing into three branches, ſo that theſe rivers of fire, communicating their heat to the cinders of former lavas, between one branch and the other, had the appearance at night of a continued ſheet of fire, four miles long, and in ſome places near two in breadth. After having run pure for about 100 yards, it began to collect a ſcum

of ſtones, cinders, &c. from which it would ſometimes emerge pure; but at its fartheſt extremity it had no appearance of any thing fluid, but looked like a heap of red-hot coals, forming a wall in ſome places ten or twelve feet in height, and tumbling continually from the top, advanced ſlowly at about the rate of 30 feet in an hour.

Next year there was a much more violent eruption of the mountain, which began in the month of March, but did not become very violent till the month of October. The frequent emiſſions of red hot ſtones and cinders which took place before that time, had at laſt formed a ſmall mountain within the mouth of the great one by their continual falling back into the place from whence they were emitted; and from the top of this little mountain the ſmoke iſſued ſo thick, that it ſeemed to have a difficulty in effecting a paſſage; while volleys of great ſtones were every minute thrown up to an immenſe height. At laſt the whole took the ſhape of a huge pine tree, which appearance was taken notice of by Pliny in his account of the eruption in 79. The column aſcended to ſuch an extraordinary height, as, when bent by the wind, to reach the iſland of Caprea, not leſs than 28 miles from Veſuvius. Theſe violent ſymptoms ceaſed on the burſting forth of the lava; after which, our author ſuppoſing the danger was over, went to the mountain to make his obſervations. But while he was employed in this manner, a violent noiſe was heard within the mountain, immediately after which the lava broke out from a new mouth only a quarter of a mile diſtant from where he ſtood, ſpringing up to a conſiderable height in the air, and rolling directly towards him. He was now in extreme danger, the earth ſhaking with ſuch violence as to endanger the fall of ſome of the rocks under which he muſt neceſſarily paſs, while the ſhowers of cinders and pumice ſtones threatened to overwhelm him; and the clouds of ſmoke produced ſuch an intenſe darkneſs, that he could not ſee which way to go. The ſulphureous ſmell was likewiſe very offenſive, and the exploſions of the mountain were much louder than thunder. In this ſituation he ran three miles before he got out of danger, and afterwards perceived that the lava had actually covered the road by which he retreated, and that to the depth of no leſs than 60 or 70 feet. The concuſſions of the air were ſo violent upon this occaſion, that windows and doors of houſes, even though locked, were burſt open. There was likewiſe a continual, violent, and rumbling ſubterraneous noiſe, which laſted for ſeveral hours, and which Sir William conjectured to have been owing to rain water lodged in the cavities of the mountain, and meeting with the lava.

The eruption of 1779 was much more violent than even that already deſcribed. It commenced in the month of Auguſt, and beſides the uſual ſymptoms of volleys of ſtones, immenſe clouds of ſmoke, &c. a moſt extraordinary ſcene was preſented by the approach of a thunder cloud. No ſooner did this come over the mouth of the inflamed volcano, than the fire from its bowels ſpouted out in a vaſt column to meet that in the cloud; both together producing an appearance not to be paralleled. Next night the lava, which had not hitherto got ſufficient vent, after a moſt aſtoniſhing exploſion, ſpouted up to the height of at leaſt 10,000 feet above the ſummit of the mountain, while the ſmoke around it, emitting continual flaſhes of zig-zag lightning, gave an appearance much more awful and tremendous, though, according to Sir William, leſs beautiful than that of the preceding evening. On this occaſion the town of Ottaiano, upon which the volcanic ſhower was driven by the wind, narrowly eſcaped the fate of Herculaneum and Pompeii of old.

The

The vaſt ſtream of lava indeed did not reach them, otherwiſe it muſt have been irreſiſtible, but vaſt ſhowers of large cinders, and pieces of lava, ſome of the latter weighing 50 or 60 pounds, fell in the ſtreets; and had this continued only half an hour longer than it did, there is not the leaſt doubt that the effect muſt have been fatal.

To the ſubterraneous fire by which the volcanoes are produced, we muſt undoubtedly aſcribe the frequency of earthquakes in this country.

In the year 1783, the ſouthern part of Italy was ruined by one of the moſt violent earthquakes mentioned in hiſtory. It affected alſo the iſland of Sicily, but leſs violently than the country already mentioned. Its extent, however, was much leſs than that of ſeveral others. Sir William Hamilton fixes the centre of its force at the town of Oppido; and, from the ſurvey he made of the country which had ſuffered, computes that its violent effects were confined within a circle whoſe circumference is 220 Italian miles, and its centre the town of Oppido; nor did it produce any ſenſible effects beyond the circumference of a circle whoſe radius was 72 ſuch miles, and Oppido the centre.

The moſt violent ſhock happened about noon on the 5th of February; but after that there were many others which likewiſe did much damage, though none were equal to this in violence. It came on inſtantaneouſly, without any warning, and the ſhock ſeemed to be directed perpendicularly upwards. The city of Oppido is ſituated on a mountain, ſurrounded by two rivers, in a very broad and deep ravine. Into this there were vaſt pieces of the plain detached, in ſuch a manner as to ſtop the courſe of both the rivers, and to form two great lakes. Part of the rock on which Oppido ſtood was alſo precipitated into the ſame hollow, with ſeveral houſes which had been built upon it. Vaſt tracts of land, with large plantations of vines and olive-trees, were thrown from one ſide of the hollow to the other, though the diſtance was more than half a mile; and with one of theſe vaſt pieces of earth a countryman was tranſported along with his field and two oxen, who were dragging a plough, to the diſtance above mentioned, without receiving any hurt. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance, however, was, that a hill about 250 feet high, and 1300 in circumference, was moved from its place near four miles down this ravine before it ſettled. In ſeveral places alſo the ſoil, though there was no appearance of fire upon it, had run like the lava of a volcano, and overflowed, like it, the neighbouring grounds.

At Terra Nuova the ground on which the town ſtood was ſplit under it, and many hundred houſes, with the earth on which they ſtood, were in a ſimilar manner thrown about half a mile from the place where they ſtood; and, what is very extraordinary, ſome of the inhabitants were dug out of the ruins alive, and even unhurt. At Caſal Nuova, the princeſs Gerace Grimaldi, with more than 4000 of her ſubjects, were deſtroyed in a moment. Some of the inhabitants who had been dug alive out of the ruins, declared that they felt their houſes ſuddenly lifted from the foundation, without having had the leaſt previous warning. An inhabitant of the place, who happened to be on an hill which overlooks the town, at that time, turned about on feeling the ſhock, but inſtead of the town, ſaw only a vaſt cloud of white duſt in the place where it had been. The whole indeed was ſo effectually overthrown, that no veſtige of houſe or ſtreet remained, all being converted into one promiſcuous heap of ruins.

Near Scilla, a mountain fell into the ſea, and raiſed ſuch a vaſt wave, as ſwept away the prince of Scilla with 2473 of his ſubjects at once. It was confidently reported that this wave was boiling hot; but Sir William Hamilton, who made the moſt diligent inquiry into the matter, found that there was no ground for ſuch an aſſertion. In other places the earth opened. and threw out quantities of water and ſand; flames alſo were ſeen to iſſue from the cracks; but no authentic accounts could be had of the water thus thrown out having been either hot or ſalt. Many of theſe cracks, though they became narrow when the earthquake was over, extended very wide during the time of it; and one ſwallowed up an ox, and near 100 goats, cloſing upon them after they were gone down. Such kind of cracks were very numerous in the lower part of the town of Meſſina, and to them our author aſcribes the overthrow of a great number of houſes there.

Such were ſome of the particulars of this earthquake, remarkable not only for its violence, but for the number and continuance of its ſhocks, which ſcarcely ceaſed for a whole year after its commencement. The number of perſons who loſt their lives was computed not to be leſs than 40,000, and the damage in other reſpects was prodigious.

It has been obſerved by a modern traveller, that though Mount Veſuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror; yet as few things in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produce ſome good event, this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profuſion of fruits and herbage, with which it was every where covered. Beſides, it is ſuppoſed, that being open and active, the mount is leſs hoſtile to Naples than it would be if its eruptions were to ceaſe, and its ſtruggles be confined to its own bowels, for then might enſue the moſt fatal ſhocks to the unſtable foundation of the whole diſtrict of Terra de Lavora.

The plain of Solfaterra, which is juſtly conſidered as one of the natural curioſities of Italy, is no other than the crater of an ancient volcano, or the hollow from whence its eruptions formerly iſſued. In the plain within the hollow, ſmoke ſtill iſſues from many parts, as well as from many places in the ſides. From theſe places they collect a kind of ſal ammoniac, but in a very aukward manner, by heaping ſtones upon one another to collect the vapours as they riſe. From the ſoil of the plain ſulphur and alum are extracted; and our author is of opinion, that by careful management this ſpot might produce a very conſiderable revenue, though at preſent it does not yield above L. 200 annually. The hollow ſound produced by throwing a heavy ſtone upon the plain of Solfaterra ſeems to indicate that it is ſupported by a kind of vault, and it is alſo probable that there is underneath it a pool of water, which boils by the heat of a ſubterraneous fire ſtill deeper. This ſuppoſition is confirmed by the very moiſt ſteam which iſſues from the cracks in the ground, and runs off in great drops from a piece of cold iron preſented to it. On the outſide, and towards the lake Agnano, water guſhes out of the rocks ſo hot as to raiſe the quickſilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer to the boiling point. After a great deal of rain, however, the heat of this fountain is much leſs. When you hold your ear near the rocks from whence this water proceeds, you hear a horrid boiling noiſe, which ſeems to proceed from the huge cauldron that may be ſuppoſed to be under the Solfaterra.

Among the natural curioſities of Italy, thoſe vaſt bodies of ſnow and ice, which are called the glaciers of Savoy, deſerve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers which extend almoſt to the plain of the Vale of Chemoung, and are ſeparated by wild foreſts, corn fields, and rich meadows; ſo that immenſe tracts of ice are blended with the higheſt cultivation, and perpetually ſucceed each other in the moſt ſtriking viciſſitude. All theſe ſeveral vallies of ice, which lye chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are ſome leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc, the higheſt mountain in Europe.

The ſummit of this mountain was deemed inacceſſible before Dr Pacard attempted to reach it in 1786, and ſucceeded in the attempt; ſoon after which, the ſame journey was undertaken by M. de Sauſſure, who publiſhed an account of his journey. As he aſcended the mountain he met with prodigious difficulties from the bad roads and precipices; but the greateſt inconvenience was from the thinneſs of the air at ſo great an elevation above the level of the ſea. One of the ſymptoms produced by this is an exceſſive thirſt; another is extreme laſſitude, and incapacity of action. The top of the mountain is computed to be 15,673 feet, or nearly three Engliſh miles above the level of the ſea. The very ſummit is a ridge nearly horizontal, lying eaſt and weſt, with a ſlope at each extremity of 28 or 30 degrees, on the ſouth ſide between 15 and 20, and on the north between 45 and 50. This ridge is ſo narrow, that two people can ſcarce walk abreaſt, eſpecially at the weſt end, where it reſembles the roof of a houſe. It is wholly covered with ſnow, nor is there any bare rock to be ſeen within 150 yards of the top. The ſurface of the ſnow is covered with an icy cruſt, and has a ſcaly appearance in ſome places. Some of the rocks, eſpecially upon the eaſt ſide, have the appearance of being lately ſhivered with lightning. No animals were ſeen in theſe elevated regions, except two butterflies, which M. Sauſſure ſuppoſes to have been driven thither by the wind; nor were there any plants except moſſes, and that called the *Silene Acaulis*, which laſt diſappears at about the height of two miles above the level of the ſea. Boiling water is about one ſeventh part leſs hot at the top of this mountain than on the plain below. The heavens, at this elevation, loſe their beautiful blue colour, and appear almoſt as black as ebony; but the luminaries ſhine with extraordinary ſplendor. M. Sauſſure informs us, that he bore, without any inconvenience, the rarefaction of the air till he reached the height of two miles and a quarter; but after that became very much affected, and all of them had a feveriſh diſpoſition.

States of Italy, Conſtitution and Chief Cities. The Italian ſtates are not like the republic of Holland or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy to which every member is accountable. For every Italian ſtate has diſtinct forms of government, trade, and intereſts; we ſhall therefore take a ſeparate view of each, to aſſiſt the reader in forming a proper idea of the whole.

The duke of Savoy, or, as he is now ſtiled, king of Sardinia, taking his royal title from that iſland, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or Keeper againſt the French. His capital, Turin, is ſtrongly fortified, and one of the the fineſt cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to ſeek their bread all over the world. They are eſteemed a ſimple but very honeſt people. The king is ſo abſolute, that his revenue is what-

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ever he pleaſes to raiſe from his ſubjects. His ordinary income, beſides his own family provinces, cannot be leſs than L. 500,000 ſterling; out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when aſſiſted by foreign ſubſidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his preſent Sardinian majeſty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his ſituation, he was eſteemed a natural ally, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe.

The Milaneſe, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, is a moſt formidable ſtate, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country is almoſt incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very ſtrong, and furniſhed with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taſte, which contains a very rich treaſury, conſiſting chiefly of eccleſiaſtical furniture, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The revenue of the duchy is above L. 300,000 annually; which is ſuppoſed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political aſſemblies, where they converſe almoſt on all ſubjects. With all their natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports; ſo that its revenue, unleſs the court of Vienna ſhall purſue ſome other ſyſtem, cannot be much bettered. The duchy of Mantua being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Auſtrian Lombardy.

The republic of Genoa is vaſtly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a moſt ſuperb city, and contains ſome very magnificent palaces, particularly thoſe of Doria and Durazzo. The inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plain, if not in an uncouth manner, perhaps to ſave expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants, (but ſome writers greatly diminiſh that number) among whom, are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix gallies. The chief ſafety of this republic conſiſts in the jealouſy of other European powers; becauſe to any of them it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition. The common people are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its territory. Near the ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobility. The chief perſon is called the doge, or duke, to which dignity no perſon is promoted till he is fifty years of age; every two years a new doge is choſen, and the former is incapable of holding the ſame poſt for five years. The doge gives audience to ambaſſadors; all orders of government are iſſued in his name; and he is allowed a body guard of two hundred Germans.

Venice is one of the moſt celebrated republics in the world, both on account of its conſtitution and former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is ſeated on 72 iſlands, at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its principal ſtrength. Venice ſtill preſerves the veſtiges of its ancient magnificence; but is in every reſpect degenerated, except in the paſſion which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mummery during their carnivals. They ſeem to have loſt their ancient taſte for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Go-

thiciſm. They have lately had, however, ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeem to be diſpoſed to throw of their obedience as to the conſtitution of the republic. It was originally democratical, the magiſtrates being choſen by a general aſſembly of the people. This continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes, were appointed, and theſe were inveſted with great power, which they often groſsly abuſed, in conſequence of which, ſome of them were aſſaſſinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legiſlative nobility was found. This continued, and progreſſive encroachments were made upon the rights of the people. At laſt a complete ariſtocracy was eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. Theſe elect a doge, or chief magiſtrate by ballot, which is managed by gold and ſilver balls. The doge is inveſted with great ſtate, and with emblems of vaſt authority; but has very little power, not being permitted to ſtir from the city without the permiſſion of the grand council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwiſe called the ſeigniory, is the ſupreme cabinet council of ſtate, and alſo the repreſentative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers anſwers in the name of the republic, to foreign ambaſſadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It alſo receives all requeſts and memorials on ſtate affairs, ſummons the ſenate at pleaſure, and arranges the buſineſs to be diſcuſed in that aſſembly. The council of ten takes cognizance of ſtate crimes, and has power of ſeizing accuſed perſons, examining them in priſon, and taking their anſwers in writing, with the evidence againſt them. But the tribunal of ſtate inquiſitors, which conſiſts only of three members, is in the higheſt degree deſpotic in its manner of proceeding. It has the power of deciding, without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian ſtate; the higheſt of the nobility, even the doge himſelf not excepted. To theſe three inquiſitors is given the right of employing ſpies, conſidering ſecret intelligence, iſſuing orders to ſeize all perſons whoſe words or actions they think reprehenſible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed when they think proper; they have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they pleaſe, penetrate into the very bedchamber of the doge, open his cabinet and examine his papers, and of courſe they may command acceſs to the houſe of every individual in the ſtate. They continue in office only one year; but are not reſponſible afterwards for their conduct whilſt they were in authority. So much diſtruſt and jealouſy are diſplayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourſe with foreign ambaſſadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and are even cautious of viſiting at each others houſes. All the orders of Venetian nobility are dreſſed in black glowns, large wigs, and caps, which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by droping into it a ring from his bucentaur, or ſtate barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility, is the moſt ſuperb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to Lord Mayor's ſhew. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and conveniency of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treaſury,

ſury, and arſenal, are beyond deſcription. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of which are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold, and ſilver ſtuffs, and above all fine looking glaſſes, which amount to a vaſt ſum, and yield government annually about 8,000,000 of Italian ducats. Each ducat is twenty pence of our money: out of this are defrayed the expences of the ſtate, and the pay of the army, which in time of peace conſiſts of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general) and 10,000 militia. They keep up a ſmall fleet for curbing the inſolence of the piratical ſtates of Barbary. They have among them ſome orders of knighthood; the chief of which are the Stola Doro, ſo called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the firſt quality, and the military Order of St Mark, of which we ſhall take notice in its proper place. In eccleſiaſtical matters, the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of the one reaches over all the provinces; but neither of them have much power, and both of them are choſen by the ſenate. All religious ſects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, are here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion, the Proteſtants only excepted. The Venetians are an ingenious people, very lively, and extravagantly fond of public amuſements; beſides they have a very nice ſenſe of honour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are to be met with in the ſtreets of Venice, reſembling thoſe tranſmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veroneſe, and Titian.

The women, in general, have admirable countenances, expreſſive features, and an eaſy addreſs. The common people are remarkably ſober, obliging to ſtrangers, and gentle in their intercourſe with each other. It is very much the cuſtom to go about in maſks at Venice, eſpecially during the carnival, when great liberties are taken. This has cauſed an idea, that there is more licentiouſneſs of manners here than in other places; but this opinion ſeems to be carried too far. Great numbers of ſtrangers viſit Venice during the carnival; and there are no fewer than eight or nine theatres, including opera houſes. The dominions of Venice conſiſt of a conſiderable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and the iſlands of Corfu, Pachſu, Antipachſu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val-di-compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy are the duchy of Venice, the Paduaneſe, the peninſula of Ravigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vicenſa, and Breſcio, the diſtricts of Bergamu, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The ſubjects of the Venetian republic are not oppreſſed: the ſenate has found, that mild treatment and good uſage, are the beſt policy, and more effectual than armies in preventing revolts.

The principal city of Tuſcany is Florence, which is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after being long held by the illuſtrious houſe of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly in architecture, literature, and the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. It is thought to contain about 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often deſcribed, but all deſcriptions yet given fall far ſhort of their beauties, riches, and elegance; ſo that, after Rome, it is juſtly reckoned the fineſt city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which is generally allowed to be the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal. The in-

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ſcription on its baſe mentions it being made by Cleomenes an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other pieces of ſculpture, all accounted maſterpieces, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters.

Every corner of this beautiful city, which ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is wonderful in the arts of painting, ſtatuary and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and an univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca, and ſeveral other academies now eſtabliſhed in Florence. Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar windows; and ſometimes they even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal not only in wines and fruits, but alſo in gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Since the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopold, brother to the late emperor, to this duchy a great reformation has been introduced, both in the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuſcany could bring to the field, if neceſſary, 30,000 effective men, and that its preſent revenues are above L. 500,000 *per annum*. The other principal towns of Tuſcany are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna. The firſt and laſt are much decayed, but Leghorn is a very handſome city, built in the modern taſte, and with ſuch regularity, that both gates are ſeen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, beſides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable proſpect of the ſea, and of many villas on the land-ſide. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free acceſs, and may ſettle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are ſaid to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue, and though ſubject to very high impoſts, yet are in a very thriving condition, the greateſt part of the commerce of the city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of Lucca, which is a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea in a moſt delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a moſt beautiful garden; ſo that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to L. 80,000 Sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, eſpecially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuſcany keeps the people of Lucca conſtantly on their guard, in order to preſerve their freedom; for in ſuch a ſituation, univerſal concord and harmony can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of their darling liberty, whoſe name they bear on their arms, and whoſe image is not only impreſſed on their coin, but alſo on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is alſo obſervable, that the inhabitants of this little republic being in poſſeſſion of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be found in thoſe of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St Marino is here mentioned as a geographical curioſity. Its territories conſiſt of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom; and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties as a republic for 1300 years. It is under the protection of

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the Pope; and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the ſmall value of their territory, have preſerved their conſtitution.

The duchy and city of Parma, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guaſtalla, now form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy of its extent. The ſoils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richeſt fruits and paſturages, beſides contain conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. It is the ſeat of a biſhop and a univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The preſent duke of Parma is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was for ſome years paſt the ſeat of a bloody war between the Auſtrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his Catholic Majeſty on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have carried with him the moſt remarkable pictures and moveable curioſities. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy; and it is ſaid that his revenues exceed L. 100,000 Sterling a-year, a ſum rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

Mantua, a rich duchy formerly, is now much decayed. It brought to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milaneſe, in poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria. The capital is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boaſt that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order from the emperor in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province and is now called Auſtrian Lombardy.

The duchy of Modena, formerly Mutina, is ſtill governed by its own duke, the head of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of Brunſwic deſcended. The duke is abſolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. He is under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, and is a vaſſal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flouriſhing, though very improveable; they having been alternately waſted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The eccleſiaſtical ſtate, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of Popiſh tyranny, ſuperſtition, and oppreſſion, diſcover themſelves here in a peculiar manner. Thoſe ſpots, which under the maſters of the world were formed into ſo many terreſtrial paradiſes, ſurrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that nature and art could combine, are now turned into noxious peſtilential marſhes, and quagmires. Even the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would ſcarcely at preſent afford ſubſiſtence to five hundred. Notwithſtanding this, the Pope is a conſiderable temporal prince; and ſome ſuppoſe that his annual revenue amounts to above a million Sterling; others have calculated them much more. Speaking comparatively, the ſum of a million Sterling is too high a revenue to ariſe from his territorial poſſeſſions. His accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that ſum, is now diminiſhed by the ſuppreſſion of the Order of the Jeſuits, from whom he drew vaſt ſupplies, and the meaſures taken by the Popiſh powers for preventing the great eccleſiaſtical iſſues of money to Rome. According to the beſt and lateſt accounts, the taxes on proviſions and lodgings furniſhed to foreigners, who ſpend immenſe ſums in viſiting his dominions, form now the greateſt part of his accidental

accidental revenues. From what has happened within theſe thirty years paſt, there is reaſon to believe, that the Pope's territories will be reduced to the limits which the houſe of Auſtria and Bourbon ſhall pleaſe to preſcribe. Some late Popes have attempted the improvement of their territories, but their endeavours have been fruitleſs. The diſcouragement of induſtry and agriculture ſeems to be interwoven in the conſtitution of the papal government, which is veſted in proud, lazy eccleſiaſtics. Their indolence, and the fanaticiſm of their worſhip, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging and impoſing upon ſtrangers to induſtry and agriculture; and indeed they have too good a reaſon for it, for they only hold their poſſeſſions by this precaurious tenure, the will of their ſuperiors. In fine, the inhabitants of many parts of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate muſt periſh through their ſloth, did not the fertility of their ſoil ſpontaneouſly afford them ſubſiſtence. However, it may be proper to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and ſloth of the lower ranks do not ariſe from their natural diſpoſitions. This obſervation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and coſtly arts, and vied with each other to make their reſpective courts the repoſitories of taſte and magnificence. This paſſion diſabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility; or from encouraging the induſtry or relieving the wants of their ſubjects; and its miſerable effects are ſeen in many parts of Italy. The ſplendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions are inexpreſſible, and partly account for the miſery of the ſubjects. But this cenſure admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome. Modern Rome contains within its circuit a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. Its curioſities and antiquities have been already touched upon. Rome ſtands upon the Tyber, which is navigable by ſmall boats, barges, and lighters; but is very inconſiderable when compared to the river Thames. The caſtle of St Angelo, though its chief fortreſs, would be found to be a place of ſmall ſtrength, were it regularly beſieged. The city ſtanding upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher; ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. When we conſider Rome as it now ſtands, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itſelf, in the magnificence of its ſtructures. Nothing in the old city would come in competition with St Peter's Church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utenſils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it muſt be acknowledged, the Pantheon muſt have been an amazing ſtructure. The inhabitants of Rome in 1714, amounted to 143,000; if we conſider that the ſpirit of travelling is much increaſed ſince that time, we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe them diminiſhed at preſent. There is nothing very particular in the Pope's temporal government in Rome; like other princes he has his guards, or *Shirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates both eccleſiaſtical and civil. The Compagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inſpection of his Holineſs. In other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopolizes all corn in his territories, and has always a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wiſely diſclaimed all intentions of oppoſing other arms to the neighbouring princes, than thoſe of prayers and ſupplications. Under the head of religion, we have mentioned the eccleſiaſtical government. As to the rota and other

ſubordinate chambers of this complicated juriſdiction, they are too numerous even to be named, and do not properly come within our plan. Under a government ſo conſtituted, it cannot be ſuppoſed the commercial exports of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, is the moſt conſiderable city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a *legate a latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more ſociably and comfortably than the other ſubjects of the Pope; and perhaps their diſtance from Rome, which is 195 miles northweſt, has contributed to their eaſe. The reſt of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate contains many towns celebrated in ancient hiſtory; and even now exhibiting the moſt ſtriking veſtiges of their flouriſhing ſtate about the 16th century; but they are at preſent little better than deſolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church or convent may be found, which is ſupported by the toil and ſweat of the neighbouring peaſants.

The grandeur of Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino, Ancona, and many other ſtates and cities, illuſtrious in former times, and noted in ancient hiſtory, are now to be ſeen in their ruins. Loretto, on the other hand, an obſcure ſpot, never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious reſort to it of pilgrims and other devotees, from a notion induſtriouſly propagated by the Romiſh clergy, that the houſe in which the Virgin Mary is ſaid to have dwelt at Nazareth was carried hither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumſtances; ſuch as, that all the trees on the arrival of the ſecret manſion bowed with the profoundeſt reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this houſe from being carried to other places, and expoſed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a ſmall apartment, ſeparated from the others by a ſilver baluſtrade, which has a gate of the ſame metal. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies wherewith this image is or was loaded. The angels, who are here placed on every ſide, are of ſolid gold. They are equally enriched with the moſt precious diamonds. To the ſuperſtition of Roman Catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this maſs of treaſure. It has been matter of ſurpriſe that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary ſtates upon Loretto, eſpecially as it is badly fortified, and ſtands near the ſea; but it is now generally ſuppoſed that the real treaſure is withdrawn, and metals, and ſtones of leſs value, ſubſtituted in their place.

The king of Naples and Sicily, or, as he is more properly called, the king of the two Sicilies, (the name of Sicily being common to both), is poſſeſſed of the largeſt dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the iſland of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 ſquare miles. They are bounded on all ſides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic Sea, except on the north-eaſt, where Naples terminates on the Eccleſiaſtical State. The Appennines run through it from north to ſouth, and its ſurface is eſtimated at 3500 ſquare leagues. The air is hot, and its ſoil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called Vino Greco, and Lachrymæ Chriſti are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, is extremely ſuperb, and adorned with all the profuſion of art and

riches; and its neighbourhood would be one of the moſt delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not their vicinity to the volcano Veſuvius, which ſometimes threatens the city with deſtruction, and the ſoil being peſtered with inſects and reptiles, ſome of which are venomous. The houſes in Naples are inadequate to the population. In general they are five or ſix ſtories high, and flat at the top, on which are placed numbers of flower vaſes, or fruit trees in boxes of earth, which produce a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the ſtreets are very handſome. No ſtreet in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo at Naples, and ſtill leſs can any of them be compared with thoſe beautiful ſtreets that lye open to the bay. The richeſt and moſt commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city. The moſt fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them; and a ſmall part of the revenue is ſet apart for feeding the poor, the monks diſtributing bread and ſoup to a certain number every day, before the doors of the convents.

Though above two thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the Proteſtants live here with great freedom, and though his Neapolitan Majeſty preſents to his holineſs every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgement that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples. The preſent revenues of that king amount to above L. 750,000 ſterling *per annum*; but it is more probable, that, by the new eſtabliſhed police purſued by the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan Majeſty's annual income will conſiderably exceed a million ſterling. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniſeed, wool, oil, wine, cheeſe, fiſh, honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gum, capers, macaroni, ſalt, pot-aſh, flax, cotton, ſilk, and diverſe manufactures. The king has a numerous, but generally poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſes, and other high ſounding titles, and his capital by far the moſt populous in Italy. There is at leaſt 350,000 inhabitants, among theſe there are about 30,000 Lazaroni, or black-guards; the greater part of which have no dwelling houſes, but ſleep every night in ſummer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of ſhelter they can find, and in the winter, or rainy time of the year, which laſts ſeveral weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they reſort to the caves under Cape di Monte, where they ſleep in crowds, like ſheep in a pinfold. Thoſe of them who have wives and children live in the ſuburbs of Naples, near Pauſilippo, in huts or in caverns, or chambers dug out of the mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fiſhing, others by carrying burthens to and from the ſhiping, many walk about the ſtreets ready to run an errand, or to perform any labour in their power for a very ſmall recompence. As they do not meet with conſtant employment, their wages are not ſufficient for a maintenance; but the deficiency is in ſome meaſure ſupplyed by the ſoup and bread which are diſtributed at the doors of the convents: but though there is ſo much poverty among the lower people, yet there is a great appearance of wealth among ſome of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are exceſſively fond of ſhow and ſplendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richneſs of their dreſs, and the grandeur of their titles. According to the accounts of a late traveller (Mr Swinburne) luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic ſtrides in Naples. About forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on

their

their heads, as the Spaniſh women do to this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap; but hair plainly dreſſed is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of inhabitants; and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aſide. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every ſpot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be ſaid to tread on claſſic ground; and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful proſpects. There are ſtill traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under ground granaries, and the ſcene of action between Hannibal and the Romans is ſtill marked out to poſterity, by the name of Pezzo di Sangue, or field of blood. Taranto, a city which was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little more than its fiſheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of ſteep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, hath the moſt delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatre, and the place where Auguſtus Cæſar died, is now hardly worth obſervation.

Brunduſium, now Brindiſi, was the great ſupplier of oyſters for the Roman tables. It has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire, under the Turks, reduced it to a ſtate of inactivity and poverty, from which it has not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boaſt of ſo many remains of ancient ſculpture as Benevento. Here the arch of Trajan, one of the moſt magnificent remains of Roman grandeur out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral; it was deſtroyed by an earthquake before the Marſian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæſar. Part of the wall ſtill remains, and ſuffered much by the earthquake in 1783, but was not entirely deſtroyed; only 126 loſt their lives out of 10,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th February, and its greateſt force ſeems to have been exerted near that ſpot. Moſt of the towns and villages were either in part or totally overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To aſcertain the extent of the ravages, Sir William Hamilton, who ſurveyed it, gives the following deſcription: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compaſſes on the ſcale of Italian miles, you were to meaſure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido, which appeared to me to be the ſpot on which the earthquake exerted its greateſt force, form a circle, the radii will be, as I have ſaid, 22 miles; you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the ſpots where the greateſt mortality happened, and where there have been moſt viſible alterations on the face of the earth; then extend your compaſs on the ſame ſcale 72 miles, preſerving the ſame centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

Italian Iſlands. The iſland of Sicily, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples and other parts with that commodity; but its cultivation, and conſequently fertility, is greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy; but gradually ſeparated from it by the encroachments of the ſea, and the ſhocks of earthquakes, ſo

as to become a perfect iſland. The climate of Sicily is ſo hot, that even in the beginning of January the ſhade is refreſhing, and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a ſmall fire is ſufficient to baniſh cold. The only appearance of Winter is found towards the ſummit of mount Ætna, where ſnow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance of preſerving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are very numerous here, the buildings handſome, and the revenues conſiderable. If this iſland was better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would, in many reſpects, be a delightful place of reſidence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this iſland are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, and which croſs each other, are very fine. This is ſaid to be the only town in Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a conſiderable trade, as alſo did Meſſina, which before the earthquake in 1783 was a large and well built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant ſtructures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower diſtrict of the city, and of the port, was deſtroyed, and conſiderable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings, called the Palazzata, in the ſhape of a creſcent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Meſſina, or Reggio, to what it was in the plain; for of 30,000, the ſuppoſed population of the city, only 700 are ſaid to have periſhed. The greateſt mortality fell upon thoſe towns and countries ſituate in the plain of Calabria Ultra; on the weſtern ſide of the mountains Dijo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Caſal Nuova the princeſs Gerace, and upwards of 4,000 of the inhabitants, loſt their lives. At Bagnara, the number of dead amounted to 3017. Radicina and Palmi count their loſs at about 3,000 each, Terra Nuova about 1400, Seminari ſtill more. The ſum total of the mortality, in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the ſecretary of ſtate's office at Naples, is 32,367. But Sir William Hamilton ſays, he has good reaſon to believe, that including ſtrangers, the number of lives loſt muſt be conſiderably greater; 40,000 at leaſt may be allowed he believes without exaggeration.

The iſland of Sardinia, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 165 miles ſouth by weſt of Leghorn, and hath ſeven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, has an univerſity, an archbiſhopric, and is the ſeat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian Majeſty's revenues from this iſland do not exceed L. 5000 ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fiſhery. Its air is bad, from the marſhes and high mountains on the north, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht, it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the houſe of Savoy.

The iſland of Corſica lies oppoſite to the republic of Genoa, between the gulf of that name and the iſland of Sardinia, and is well known by the noble ſtand the inhabitants made for their liberty againſt their Genoeſe tyrants, and afterwards againſt the baſe and ungenerous efforts of the French to enſlave them. It was their liberty they contended for, not for any advantages they enjoy either from nature or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome cattle and horſes,

and

and is plentifully ſupplied with fiſh both by ſea and rivers. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 120,000. Baſtia, the capital, is a place of ſome ſtrength, though other towns in the iſland, that were in poſſeſſion of the malcontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

Capri, the ancient Caprea, is an iſland to which Auguſtus Cæſar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a ſcene of the moſt infamous pleaſures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects fartheſt into the ſea. It extends four miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſtern part is for about two miles a continued rock, vaſtly high, and inacceſſible next to the ſea. Yet Anno Capi, the largeſt town in this iſland, is ſituated here; and in this part there are ſeveral places covered with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long as the weſtern. Between the rocky mountains at each end is a ſlip of lower ground that runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots that can be conceived: it is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn fields, and affords delightful little landſcapes, when viewed from the top of the neighbouring mountains. Here is ſituated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the biſhop's palace. In the midſt of this fertile tract riſes a hill, which, in the reign of Tiberius, was probably covered with buildings, ſome remains of which are ſtill ſeen; but the moſt conſiderable ruins are at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontary. From this place there is a very noble proſpect: on one ſide of it is the ſea, which extends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide the bay of Naples.

Iſchia, and ſome other iſlands on the coaſt of Naples and Italy, have nothing to diſtinguiſh them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful ſummer retreats for their owners. Elba hath been renowned for its mines, from a period beyond the reach of hiſtory: Virgil and Ariſtole mention it. Its ſituation is about ten miles ſouth-weſt from Tuſcany, and thirty miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants. It is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longono belongs, and the great duke of Tuſcany, who is maſter of Porto Ferraia, and the prince of Rombino. The fruits and wine of this iſland are very good, and the tunny fiſhes and ſalt produce a good revenue.

We ſhall here mention the iſland of Malta, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian Iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, and is ſituated in 14 degrees eaſt longitude; and 36° north latitude; and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but exceſſively hot: the whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock, covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which is, however, amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden ſtuffs of all kinds. This iſland, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St John of Jeruſalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falkon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors. They are now known by the appellation of the Knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity, but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman Catholic countries on the continent, and are under

der the government of a grand maſter, who is elected for life. The lord prior of the order was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000, and 500 muſt reſide on the iſland. The remainder are in their ſeminaries in other countries, but at any ſummons are to make a perſonal appearance. They had a ſeminary in England, till it was ſuppreſſed by Henry VIII.; but they even now give to one the title of Grand Prior of England. They are conſidered as the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks on that ſide. They wear the badge of the order, a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, pendant to a black watered ribband at the breaſt, and the badge is decorated ſo as to diſtinguiſh the country of the knight. They are generally of noble families, or ſuch as can prove their gentility for ſix deſcents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are ſixteen called the Great Croſſes, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marſhal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are choſen. When the great maſter dies, they ſuffer no veſſel to go out of the iſland till another is choſen, to prevent the Pope from interfering in the election. Out of the ſixteen great croſſes, the grand maſter is elected, whoſe title is the Moſt Illuſtrious and Moſt Reverend Prince, the Lord Friar, A. B. Great Maſter of the hoſpital of St John of Jeruſalem, Prince of Malta and Gaza: All the knights are ſworn to defend the church, to obey their ſuperiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valletta, or Malta, and its harbour, but the whole iſland, is ſo well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 18th September there is an annual proceſſion at Malta, in memory of the Turks raiſing the ſiege on that day in 1563, after four months aſſault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

Arms and Orders. The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow. The Pope as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, or ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns together, two keys of St Peter placed in ſaltier. The arms of Tuſcany, or five roundles, gules two two and one one in chief, azure, charged with three flower de luces, or thoſe of Venice, azure. a lion winged, ſejant, or holding under one of his paws a book covered argent. Thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſica; and for ſupports two griffins. The arms of Naples are azure, ſemee of flower de luces, or with a libel of five points, gules.

The Order of St Januarius was inſtituted by the preſent king of Spain, when king of Naples in July 1738. The number of knights is limited to 30, and after the preſent ſovereign, that office of the order is to be poſſeſſed by the king of Naples. All the knights muſt prove the nobility of their deſcent for four centuries, and are to be addreſſed by the title of Excellency. St Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of this order. The Order of Annunciation was inſtituted in the year 1355, by Amadius V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadius I. who bravely defended Rhodes againſt the Turks; and won thoſe arms which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy, gules, a croſs, argent. It is accounted among the moſt reſpectable orders in Europe. The knight muſt not only be of a noble family, but alſo a papiſt. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert duke of Savoy inſtituted the Order of St Lazarus, and revived and united the obſolete Order of St Maurice to it, which was confirmed by the Pope, on condition of maintaining two gallies againſt the Turks. In the year

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228, it is pretended that the body of St Mark, was removed from Alexandria in Egypt to Venice. Accordingly this ſaint hath been taken for their tutelary ſaint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their enſigns and banners. When the order of St Mark was firſt inſtituted is uncertain, but it is an honour conferred by the doge, or duke of Venice and the ſenate, on perſons of eminent quality, or who have done ſome ſignal ſervices to the republic. The knights when made, if preſent, are dubbed with a ſword on their ſhoulders, the duke ſaying "Eſto miles fidelis," (be a faithful ſoldier). Abſent perſons are inveſted by letters patent, but their title, Knights of St Mark, is merely honorary; they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligation by vows as other orders. About the year 1360, Frederic III. Emperor of Germany inſtituted the order of St George, and dedicated it to the St George tutelary ſaint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand maſter; the badge a plain croſs, enamelled gules, pendant to a gold chain, and worn about their necks; the croſs is alſo embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Caſſimir of Medicis, firſt grand duke of Tuſcany, inſtituted the order of St Stephen, in memory of a victory which ſecured to him the ſovereignty of that province. He and his ſucceſſors were to be grand maſters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houſes are at Piſa. It is a religious as well as a military order, but the knights of juſtice and the eccleſiaſtics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four deſcents; they wear a red croſs with right angles orled, or on the left ſide of their habit, and on the mantle.

The Order of the Holy Ghoſt was founded with their chief ſeat; the hoſpital of that name in Rome by Pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand maſter, and profeſs obedience, chaſtity, and poverty. Their revenues are eſtimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain ſtrangers, relieve the poor, train up deſerted children, &c. Their enſign is a white patriarchal croſs, with 12 points ſewed on their breaſt on the left ſide of the black mantle. The Order of Jeſus Chriſt, inſtituted by Pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by Paul V.; the reigning Pope was to be always ſovereign of it, and it was deſigned as a mark of diſtinction for the Pope's Italian nobility, on account of its frequent proſtitution, it has fallen into diſcredit. The Order of the Golden Spur is ſaid to have been inſtituted by Pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the order of Pius, inſtituted a year afterwards, but the badges were different. The knights of Pius were ſuppreſſed, and all the knights of the golden ſpur have preſerved to themſelves the title of Counts of the Sacred Palace of the Lateran. The badge is a ſtar eight points, white, and between the two bottom points, a ſpur, gold.

Hiſtory. In ancient times Italy was divided into a great number of petty ſtates, but after the Gauls had ſettled in the weſtern parts, and many Greek colonies in the eaſtern diſtricts, it was divided into three parts, called Gallia Ciſalpina, Italy proper, and Magna Grecia. The moſt weſterly and northern parts were poſſeſſed by the Gauls; but in the time of Auguſtus the name of Ciſalpine Gaul was diſuſed, and is ſcarce to be met with in any author poſterior to that age. Theſe countries were inhabited by a number of different nations, the moſt remarkable of whom were the Sabines, Hetrurians, or Tuſcans, Umbrians, Samnites, Campanians, Apulians, Calabrians, Lucanians, Brutians, and Latins. The ancient hiſtories of all thoſe nations is involved in obſcurity, ſo that

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we can only ſay in general that they were very warlike, and that Alexander king of Epirus, and nephew to Alexander the Great, undertook an expedition againſt them, in which he loſt his life, without being able to make much impreſſion. As it might naturally be expected, they were very often at war with each other; and to this circumſtance it was probably owing that Æneas, with ſome fugitives who had eſcaped the ſlaughter at Troy, got ſuch ready acceſs to the country.

This hero, according to the hiſtories we have of theſe times, having defended the citadel of Troy with great valour for ſome time, was obliged at laſt to retire to ſome ſtrong holds of Mount Ida, where he was ſoon joined by many of the inhabitants, who were anxious to preſerve themſelves from the tyranny of the Greeks. Here he hoped to remain unmoleſted; but the Greeks had no ſooner pillaged the territory belonging to Troy than they turned their arms againſt him, and would, no doubt, have ſoon obliged him to ſurrender, had he not found means to come to an accommodation with them, on condition of departing the Trojan territories with all his followers. On this he fitted out a fleet, with a deſign to ſettle in ſome foreign country, and having put to ſea, landed, after many adventures, on the coaſt of Latium in Italy, anciently a celebrated kingdom, but now known to have been very inconſiderable in extent, and to make a part of the diſtrict called *Campagna di Roma*. The people of the country had formerly been called *Aborigines*, from its being unknown whence they originally came; but from one of their kings named Latinus, they took the name of *Latins*. It was during the reign of this monarch that Æneas came with his attendants into Italy. His firſt ſtep was to fortify a camp near the mouth of the river Tiber, and to this they gave the name of Troy. Latinus being then at war with the Rutuli, a nation in the neighbourhood, marched againſt the Trojans with all his forces; but finding them better verſed in military affairs than he expected, entered into a negociation, in which it was agreed that they ſhould have a ſettlement in the country, on condition of affording him aſſiſtance againſt the people with whom he was then at war. This was ſo faithfully kept on the part of Æneas, and with ſuch ſucceſs, that the king gave him his daughter Lavinia in marriage; and ſoon after this, Latinus being killed in battle (againſt Turnus the queen's nephew, who had revolted on ſeeing Lavinia beſtowed on a ſtranger) the crown devolved upon the Trojan hero. Three years after, Æneas himſelf was drowned in a river, into which he was puſhed in a battle with the Rutuli, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Aſcanius, called alſo Euryleon and Iulus. Lavinia being left with child by Æneas, fled into a wood when the time of her delivery approached, where ſhe brought forth a ſon, called from the place of his birth Æneas Sylvius. But Aſcanius finding the queen's flight very prejudicial to his reputation, cauſed diligent ſearch to be made for her, and having at laſt found her out, treated both her and her child with the utmoſt kindneſs. When Æneas, the ſon of Lavinia, grew up, Aſcanius reſigned to him the kingdom of Lavinium, and founded a city to himſelf, which he named *Alba Longa*; but the Latins finding it inconvenient to be thus divided into two ſtates, beſtowed the ſovereignty upon Æneas, making ſome amends to Iulus the ſon of Aſcanius, by giving him the ſupreme authority in matters of religion.

The ſucceſſors of Æneas Sylvius continued to reign in Alba for near 400 years; but of theſe princes we know very little more than that

from one of them called Tiberinus, who was drowned in the river Albula, it took the name of the *Tiber;* and from another named Aventinus, the hill afterwards denominated Mount Aventine took its designation. The reign of Numitor, however, who was the grandfather of Romulus the first king of Rome, is famous in history. He had the misfortune to be driven from the throne by his brother Amulius; who, not contented with this injury, murdered his only son Egestus, and consecrated his daughter Rhea to the worship of the goddess Vesta, by which she was bound to perpetual virginity. This precaution proved ineffectual. Rhea was said to have been ravished by the god Mars, and certainly brought forth twins, whoever was the father. On this she was sentenced to death by Amulius; but this was afterwards changed to perpetual imprisonment. To the twins, both of whom were boys, more rigour was shewn. They were exposed in a wooden trough on the river Tiber, near the foot of Mount Palatine; and, being carried down by the stream, were at last found by Faustulus the king's shepherd, who took care of them, and caused them be nursed by his own wife nicknamed *Lupa*, or she wolf, on account of her disorderly life; and hence the fable of these two children being suckled by a she wolf.

The children, named, by Faustulus, Romulus and Remus, being grown up, soon discovered their capacity for military affairs, by engaging in a quarrel between the herdsmen of Numitor and Amulius. Having, on this occasion, taken part with the latter, Remus was carried before Numitor; who, notwithstanding his being deposed, seems to have still been esteemed a man of considerable consequence. At this time a discovery was made of the real history of the twins; and soon after, Romulus having raised a party of the country people, among whom it seems he had great influence, deposed and put to death Amulius, and restored his grandfather Numitor. On this occasion the attendants of Romulus formed themselves into bands of 100 men each, and had no other ensigns than bundles of hay stuck upon long poles, which the Latins at that time called *Manipuli;* and hence the name of *Manipulares*, which the Romans afterwards gave to troops raised in the country.

Numitor being now settled on the throne, and probably glad to get rid of such restless spirits as his two grandchildren seemed to possess, advised them to found a colony. For this purpose he bestowed upon them the lands near the Tiber, where they had been brought up, supplied them with the utensils necessary for agriculture, and gave liberty to as many of his subjects to join them as inclined so to do. Thus the city of Rome was founded; but, in doing so, Remus was killed in a scuffle, as is said, by the hand of his brother Romulus.

The foundations of this celebrated city were laid, according to the most probable accounts, in the year 748, B. C. and when it had received the utmost perfection which the founders could give, it was but a poor village, consisting of about 1000 houses, built in the rudest manner; the principal inhabitants following the plough; and even the palace of Romulus the king being constituted with rushes. But though Romulus had already assumed the supreme authority in every thing belonging to the colony, he did not choose to take upon himself the title of king until he should be formally elected by his people. When this was done, he applied himself to the regulation of the affairs of his kingdom, and that with such success, that some of his institutions continued in force even when the republic was in the height of its glory.

Nothing was now wanting to give ſtability to the new colony, but a ſupply of women, which it ſeems could not eaſily be procured, as none of the neighbouring nations thought proper to give their daughters in marriage to ſuch a crew of vagabonds as Rome at that time conſiſted of. To make up this capital defect, Romulus proclaimed a ſolemn feaſt in honour of Neptune, with ſhows of a very magnificent kind; and as this naturally brought a concourſe of the neighbouring people to the city (for ſo we muſt call it) the Romans, by the advice of their king, ruſhed in among them ſword in hand, and carried off all the young women, to the number of 683. Among all theſe there was only one married woman, whoſe name was *Herſilia;* and Romulus, inſtead of giving her back to her huſband, kept her for himſelf. This violence brought on a war, in which Romulus was at firſt ſucceſsful, but in the end was likely to be overpowered; when the women, by the advice of Herſilia, went in a body to the camp of the Sabines, who were the enemies at that time, and pleaded the cauſe of their huſbands ſo effectually, that a reconciliation was ſet on foot in a very ſhort time, and peace afterwards concluded on the following terms: 1. That the two kings ſhould reign jointly in Rome. 2. That the Romans and Sabines ſhould become one people under the name of *Quirites*, a title hitherto appropriated to the Sabines; but that the city ſhould ſtill have the name of *Rome*, from Romulus its founder. As the Sabine women were thus the firſt authors of the Roman power and ſplendor, very conſiderable privileges were beſtowed upon them. Every perſon was commanded to give place to them in the ſtreet; they were exempted from the juriſdiction of the ordinary judges in capital caſes, and their children were allowed to wear a ſmall golden ball hanging from their necks, with a particular kind of robe, called *prætexta*, to diſtinguiſh them from the vulgar.

Romulus continued to reign with his colleague in great harmony for five years, during which time very little diſſenſion took place with the neighbouring nations; but after the death of *Tatius*, for ſo was the Sabine monarch called, the martial diſpoſition of Romulus diſplayed itſelf in continual wars with the neighbouring nations, in all of which he proved ſucceſsful; but at laſt, becoming a tyrant, and paying no regard to the advice of the ſenators, whom he had promiſed to conſult upon all occaſions, they took an opportunity of murdering him.

He was ſucceeded by Numa Pompilius, a pacific and ſuperſtitious prince, who ſpent his lifetime in adjuſting the ceremonies of religion. During his long reign, which continued 43 years, the Romans remained at peace with their neighbours, the calender was reformed, they were divided into different claſſes, and applied themſelves to agriculture, ſo that they ſeemed likely in a ſhort time to become a civilized people. On the death of Numa, however, their martial ſpirit revived under Tullus Hoſtilius, the ſon or grandſon of the famous Herſilia. His firſt exploit was the reduction of Alba Longa, which, being the mother city of Rome, had all along maintained ſome degree of ſuperiority, and now claimed it as a right. As the matter could not be determined by argument, Tullus propoſed a ſingle combat between him and Fuffetius the Alban general. This was declined by the latter, on which it was after ſome debate agreed, that three champions on each ſide ſhould decide the matter. Theſe champions happened to be brothers, three of whom called *Horatij* were Romans, and three Albans named *Curiatij*. The latter were ſuperior in ſtrength to the Horatij, and killed

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two of them, by which the Romans were almoſt thrown into deſpair. But all the Alban brothers were wounded, and the remaining Horatius had preſerved himſelf unhurt. Pretending now to fly, he was followed by the three brothers; but as they were all wounded, they could not keep together, which gave him an opportunity to kill them all one after another, and thus obtain the ſovereignty for Rome. On the return of this hero, he was met by his ſiſter, who had been married to one of the Curiatij; and was by her ſo bitterly reproached for the death of her huſband, that he killed her alſo; notwithſtanding which he was ſaved from juſtice by the people.

It was not long after this deciſion, that Tullus found a pretence of demoliſhing Alba entirely, and tranſplanting the inhabitants to Rome. Fuffetius, whoſe treachery gave riſe to this, was torn in pieces by horſes; after which Tullus, having no rival, gave way for ſome time to his martial inclination, but at laſt became entirely addicted to fooliſh ſuperſtitions. By ſome he is ſaid to have been killed by lightning, together with his wife and family; but by others to have been murdered by Ancus Martius his ſucceſſor.

The new king was grandſon to Numa by his daughter Pompilia, and had the unanimous concurrence of the ſenate and people for his election. Though naturally of a martial diſpoſition, he at firſt cultivated the arts of peace, which proved agreeable enough to his own ſubjects, but brought him into contempt with the neighbouring nations. Them he chaſtiſed, and gained conſiderable advantages for his city, which he likewiſe greatly enlarged, dying at laſt in peace, after a reign of 24 years. After his death, Tarquin, a Corinthian merchant, to whom he had left the tuition of his children, ſupplanted them, and aſſumed the ſovereignty himſelf. He proved a greater prince than any of his predeceſſors, took many cities from the Latins, and even reduced the Hetrurians to ſubjection, who were at that time accounted the moſt powerful people in Italy. After this, he applied himſelf to fortify and ornament the city. By him the walls were built with hewn ſtone, and thoſe famous common ſewers which were juſtly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. At this time the city contained four hills within its walls, viz. the Palatine, Tarpeius, Quirinalis, and Cœlius. In the valleys between theſe hills, the ſprings and rain water uniting, formed great pools, which laid the ſtreets and public places quite under water, at the ſame time that the air was infected by putrid exhalations, raiſed from the mud and filth collected there. Tarquin undertook to free the city from this nuiſance by ſubterraneous channels, which ſhould convey the whole into the Tiber. In doing this, he was obliged to cut a channel, large enough, for a navigable ſtream through hills and rocks; and to cover this with arches ſolid enough to bear the weight of the heavieſt buildings. Their height and breadth was ſo great, that a cart loaded with hay might eaſily paſs through them, and when they came to need repairs, 1000 talents were found neceſſary for the purpoſe. The ſame prince likewiſe adorned the forum, ſurrounding it with galleries containing ſhops for tradeſmen, building temples in it for the youth of both ſexes, and halls for the adminiſtration of juſtice; and after having once more engaged in a ſucceſsful war with ſome of the neighbouring nations, he ſpent his old age in building temples and other decorations of the city. At laſt he was aſſaſſinated, in the 88th year of his age, by the ſons of Ancus Martius, whom he had formerly deprived of the kingdom.

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The aſſaſſins, after having perpetrated this deed, ſeem to have wanted reſolution or addreſs to accompliſh their purpoſe fully. Inſtead of this, they ſuffered themſelves to be amuſed by a ſtory forged by the queen, that Tarquin was ſtill alive; by which they came at laſt to be ſo much intimidated, that they left the city. Thus the queen got the adminiſtration for the preſent conferred upon her ſon-in-law Servius Tullius, who having ſummoned the ſons of Ancus before him, declared them infamous, and confiſcated their eſtates on their non-appearance; after which, he was elected to the ſovereign power without any oppoſition. He proved no way inferior to his predeceſſors, either in the arts of war or peace, and made many ſalutary regulations, until at laſt he was inhumanly murdered by his ſon in-law Tarquin, who immediately mounted the throne, and for his tyranny and deſpotic behaviour was ſurnamed *the Proud*. In his external wars he generally proved ſucceſsful, not ſo much through his valour or military ſkill, as through the baſeſt treachery, of which he gave ſeveral remarkable inſtances. At laſt, having greatly diſſatisfied the Romans in general, his ruin was completed by the rape of Lucretia, a woman of great beauty and virtue, the wife of one Collatinus, a perſon of high rank. This piece of wickedneſs was perpetrated not indeed by Tarquin himſelf, but by his ſon Sextus. The general indignation was raiſed in an higher degree on this account, by the extravagance of Lucretia herſelf, who could not be ſatisfied without putting an end to her own life in a public aſſembly of her friends, before whom ſhe made her complaint. While thoſe preſent, who were all perſons of great power and influence in the city, were yet inflamed with paſſion, Brutus, the ſon of a nobleman whom Tarquin had deſtroyed, drew the dagger out of the body of Lucretia, and ſhowing it to the aſſembly, ſwore by the blood upon it, that he would purſue Tarquin and his family with fire and ſword; nor would he ever ſuffer his family or any other to reign in Rome. The oath was taken by the whole company, who were the more ſurpriſed at the preſent conduct of Brutus, as he had hitherto, to preſerve himſelf from the cruelty of the tyrant, pretended to be an idiot. Inſtead of holding him in this view, however, any longer, he inſtantly became the leader of the enterpriſe againſt Tarquin. By his advice the ſupreme power was now lodged in the hands of two magiſtrates, named *Conſuls*, who were to be elected annually; the ſtate itſelf was to be named a Republic; but that the name of king might not be entirely aboliſhed, he adviſed that the perſon who had the chief management of religious matters, ſhould be ſtiled *Rex Sacrorum*, king of ſacred matters.

Thus the regal power was totally overthrown at Rome, and all the attempts of Tarquin, though aſſiſted by the neighbouring nations, to regain his ſovereignty, proved unſucceſsful. As he had procured many friends abroad, however, the Romans ſuffered greatly by the defection of their allies after his expulſion. Their territories had always been confined within a very narrow compaſs, but now they were left in much the ſame ſtate in which they had been in the time of Romulus. All their victories had never yet procured them as much land as could ſupply them with corn; but their great ſtrength proceeded from the vaſt number of inhabitants in the city, which had been augmented beyond bounds, by the continual tranſportation of the inhabitants of conquered places to it; and as rapine and pillage was undoubtedly neceſſary for thoſe who had not territory ſufficient to maintain them, e-

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very Roman citizen was a ſoldier; ſo that they ſoon excelled all people in the world in military ſkill.

The greateſt attempt in favour of the Tarquins was made by Porſena a powerful Hetrurian prince, who preſſed the Romans ſo hard, that this appeared to be the moſt dangerous war they had ever been engaged in. This war was diſtinguiſhed by three very remarkable adventures, viz. thoſe of Horatius Cocles, Mutius Scævola, and the virgin Clælia. The firſt, on occaſion of the Romans being defeated, with only two companions, defended a bridge acroſs the Tiber for ſome time againſt the whole Hetrurian army. The defenſive arms of the two who aſſiſted him being deſtroyed, they were obliged to retire, upon which Horatius deſired them to break down the bridge from the other end, till which time he undertook to defend it alone. At laſt being informed by ſignal that the bridge was almoſt broken down, he threw himſelf, though grievouſly wounded, into the river, and got to the other ſide alive, notwithſtanding the darts of the enemy. From the reward given to Horatius, we may judge of the high value of land among the Romans at that time; as, notwithſtanding his extraordinary exploit, he got no more than he could plough in one day with a yoke of oxen. To make ſome farther amends, however, each of the inhabitants gave him the value of a days proviſion, and a ſtatue was erected to him in the temple of Vulcan. The other adventure ſet forth in a light no leſs ſtriking, the deſperate and determined reſolution of the Romans in caſes where the ſafety of their republic was concerned. One Mutius Cordus, a young nobleman, undertook to aſſaſſinate Porſena, who kept the city beſieged, and would probably have taken it by famine, notwithſtanding the valour of its inhabitants. Having got into the Hetrurian camp in the diſguiſe of a peaſant, he found Porſena with his ſecretary ſitting upon the ſame throne; and, not knowing which was the king, he killed the ſecretary by miſtake, and then attempted to make his eſcape. On being ſeized and brought back, inſtead of ſhewing any concern for the attempt, he thruſt his right hand into a pan of burning coals which ſtood by, and held it there till it was entirely diſabled; on which the king, terrified and ſurpriſed at this deſperate action, not only granted him his life and liberty, but reſtored him the dagger with which he had attempted to kill himſelf. Mutius, now unable to hold any thing in his right hand, took it with the left, and thence was afterwards named Scævola, or Left-handed.

Porſena now perceiving what kind of enemies he had to deal with, ſent deputies to treat with the Romans, requiring them only to reſtore the eſtates of the Tarquins, and to give back ſeven ſmall towns which they had taken from the Veientes, a neighbouring people. The latter was inſtantly complied with, but the former was ſtill refuſed, till Porſena ſhould hear the reaſons they had to urge againſt it. A truce, however, was agreed upon; and ten young men, and as many young virgins, were ſent as hoſtages for the reſtoration of the towns of the Veientes. One of the young women, named *Clælia*, ſoon growing weary of confinement among ſtrangers, and being ſeparated from the Roman territories only by the river Tiber, ſwam acroſs it, encouraging her companions to do the ſame, ſo that they all got ſafely back to Rome. They were, however, ſoon ſent off again to the camp of the Hetrurians, but on their way, the Tarquins made an attempt to ſeize them, which was ſo much reſented by Porſena, that he ever after abandoned their cauſe, and made

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By this victory the power of the Romans was raiſed to ſuch a pitch, that they were not only ſecure from any danger of foreign enemies, but the way was prepared for the conqueſt of all Italy, though their progreſs was retarded for ſome time by the diſſenſions which took place among themſelves. Theſe originated from a diſtinction which Romulus had made among his ſubjects, at the foundation of the city, into *Patricians* and *Plebeians*, ſomething anſwerable to our nobility and commonalty. The conſequence was, that the plebeians were oppreſſed by the patricians, in ſuch a manner as frequently to drive them into a revolt; and had it not been for the almoſt continual wars in which they were engaged, it is moſt probable that the city would from its foundation have been a ſcene of confuſion and bloodſhed; but at laſt the differences were in ſome meaſure compromiſed by the election of tribunes of the people. Theſe were a kind of magiſtrates deſigned as a check upon the conſuls and patrician party, and had power to prevent the paſſing of any law that might be prejudicial to the people. Their perſons were declared ſacred; whoever injured a tribune was accurſed, his effects conſecrated to Ceres, and any perſon at liberty to kill him. Thus began the democratical part of the Roman conſtitution, and in a ſhort time it appeared that the plebeians, by means of their newly created magiſtrates, were more than a match for their opponents. Their firſt conteſt had almoſt produced fatal effects; for a young patrician, named Caius Marcius, to which the ſurname of *Coriolanus* had been added, on account of his having diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the ſiege of Corioli, being expelled Rome by the intrigues of the tribunes, took refuge among the Volſci, a powerful nation, and remarkable for their hatred to Rome. Having ſhewed himſelf ready to undertake any thing againſt his native country, he was quickly put at the head of an army, and made war upon the Romans with ſuch ſucceſs, that he had taken all their towns, and

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This diſaſter did not yet teach the Romans to agree among themſelves; the diſturbances went on, till at laſt the conſtitution was entirely changed; and the citizens, weary of being governed by the arbitrary and often contradictory deciſions of magiſtrates, unanimouſly reſolved to be regulated by written laws. For this purpoſe a deputation was ſent to the Greek cities in Italy and to Athens, to enquire into the laws by which theſe places were governed, and to bring from thence ſuch as they imagined would be moſt for the good of their country. Hence originated the laws of the twelve tables, part of which remain to this day. On the return of the ambaſſadors, it was inſiſted upon by the tribunes, that ſome perſons ſhould be appointed to digeſt their laws into proper form, and to ſee them put in execution. A vehement debate enſued, whether ſome of theſe new magiſtrates ſhould not be choſen from among the plebeians; but at laſt the patrician party prevailed, and it was determined that ten ſenators of the firſt diſtinction ſhould be elected, whoſe power ſhould continue for a year, and during that time ſhould be equal to what the power of kings and conſuls had formerly been. Thus originated the government of Rome by *Decemvirs;* but they, having once got the ſupreme power into their hands, determined not to part with it. After the expiration of the firſt year, therefore, pretending that they had ſome laws yet unfiniſhed, they intreated the ſenate to continue them in their offices; and this being once done, they reſolved to continue themſelves againſt all kind of order or propriety. Innumerable acts of tyranny and oppreſſion followed. An old warrior, named Sicinius Dentatus, who had been raiſed to the tribuneſhip, was marked out by them for deſtruction, on account of the freedom with which he ſpoke of their proceedings. As no attempt could openly be made upon the life of a tribune whoſe perſon was accounted ſacred, he was ſent out on a military exploit at the head of 100 men, who had orders to fall upon and murder him by the way. The brave veteran, who had got the name of the *Roman Achilles*, perceiving their intention, put his back to a rock, and drawing his ſword, killed 15 of the aſſaſſins, and wounded 30 more. On this they kept at a diſtance, and diſcharged their javelins at him, but theſe he caught upon his ſhield with ſuch amazing dexterity that it would have been doubtful whether they could have accompliſhed their purpoſe, had not ſome of them climbed up to the top of the rock, and from thence overwhelmed him with ſtones. The ruin of the decemvirs was completed in a manner ſomewhat ſimilar to that of the Tarquins. One of them, named Appius, having attempted to carry off a beautiful young woman, named Virginia, whom he pretended to be the daughter of his ſlave, her father Virginius, with true Roman barbarity, ſtabbed her to the heart, and then running about the city with the bloody knife in his hand, raiſed ſuch a commotion, that the authority of the decemvirs was inſtantly at an end. The two who were moſt guilty, named Appius and Oppius, were impriſoned, and there put an end to their

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own lives, while the other eight were driven into baniſhment, and died in exile.

The plebeians now having gained ſuch a conſiderable victory, propoſed two new laws, by which they would be ſtill more on an equality with their adverſaries; the one was, that the patricians ſhould be allowed to intermarry with the plebeians; which being prohibited by the laws of the twelve tables, had prevented Appius from marrying Virginia abovementioned; the other was, that one of the conſuls ſhould be choſen from among the plebeians. The former of theſe was granted by the ſenate, but the latter rejected with great indignation. The affair ended in the inſtitution of a new form of government, under certain officers called *Military Tribunes*, one half of whom at leaſt were to be patricians. Their number was at firſt three, then four, and afterwards ſix; but this inſtitution was of very ſhort duration, the office of conſuls being quickly reſtored. In order to lighten the burden of theſe magiſtrates, it was now determined to inſtitute another office. The perſons who enjoyed this were ſtiled *Cenſors*, and it was their buſineſs to take an eſtimate of the numbers of the people, to value their eſtates, diſtribute them into their proper claſſes, take cognizance of their manners, and puniſh them for their faults. The firſt elected cenſors were patricians, and from this order they continued to be elected for near 100 years.

The diſturbances excited by the tribunes were now for a ſhort time laid aſleep, but they were ſoon awakened, and the ſenate for one year obliged to conſent to the reſtoration of military tribunes. Theſe in like manner proving diſagreeable, the conſuls were reſtored the year following, and continued not only during the times of the republic, but of the emperors alſo, and even after the empire had been entirely overthrown by the Barbarians. By reaſon of theſe perpetual diſturbances, however, the Romans had now been leſs able than formerly to defend themſelves againſt the neighbouring nations. The inhabitants of Veij particularly, who had long been the rivals of the Romans, had often committed great devaſtations in their territories, and among other exploits they had cut off almoſt the whole family of the Fabij, (one of the moſt honourable in Rome) to the number of more than 300 perſons, who had voluntarily undertaken to defend the frontiers againſt their incurſions. On this it was determined that the city of Veij ſhould be reduced, coſt what it would, and a Roman army ſat down before it with a reſolution not to depart before it was reduced. This was a work of ſuch difficulty, and deſtroyed ſo many of the beſiegers, that it ſeemed to threaten Rome itſelf with depopulation. The army continued before it Summer and Winter; in the former ſeaſon puſhing on their attacks, and in the latter keeping up a kind of blockade, and without any other defence againſt the inclemencies of the weather than tents made of the ſkins of beaſts. In this ſituation they perſevered for ten years, during which time ſuch numbers periſhed either by the ſallies of the enemy, or by the inclemency of the weather, that a law was made commanding the bachelors at Rome to marry the widows of the ſoldiers who were ſlain before the town of Veij. Many commanders had been employed, none of whom had been attended with any great ſucceſs; until at laſt the celebrated Camillus was choſen dictator, and appointed to the command of the army. This office had been originally inſtituted before the battle of Regillus already mentioned, and the naming of a dictator was always ſuppoſed to indicate that the republic was in great danger. This ma-

giſtrate was inveſted with abſolute power, and he was likewiſe allowed to nominate another, whom he named the general of the Roman horſe, whoſe office expired along with the dictatorſhip. Camillus was no ſooner inveſted with this high office, then he repaired to the camp at Veij, where he entirely altered the method of conducting the ſiege; and, conſcious that it was not in his power to take ſuch a ſtrong place by ſtorm, cauſed a mine to be wrought under its walls into the very heart of the city. This was accompliſhed with incredible labour, and ſuch ſecrecy, that the inhabitants had not the leaſt intimation of the deſign, till they were ſurpriſed by the ſight of an army riſing out of the earth in the midſt of their city. All reſiſtance was now in vain; the city was plundered, and the conquerors enriched with its ſpoils; but Camillus having ſhewn himſelf too much intoxicated with his ſucceſs, and being ſuſpected by the tribunes of aſpiring to too great power in the ſtate, was condemned by them to perpetual baniſhment. The Romans had ſoon cauſe to repent of this ingratitude; for now a more formidable enemy than ever they had met with made their appearance. Theſe were the Gauls, who, under one Brennus, had made an irruption into Italy, in ſuch numbers, as the Romans at preſent, in a weakened condition, could not oppoſe. They had been invited into the country originally by one Arunx, a perſon of great diſtinction in Cluſium in Hetruria, in order to revenge himſelf of a prince to whom he had been guardian, and who had carried off his wife. Theſe allies, however, inſtead of attending to the injury of Arunx, ſeemed determined to make a conqueſt of all Italy, and therefore ſpent ſix years in ſubduing part of it before they arrived at Cluſium, where the wife of Arunx and her lover had ſhut themſelves up. The inhabitants, unable to reſiſt ſuch a formidable enemy, implored the aſſiſtance of the Romans. The ſenate, unwilling to engage in a war againſt the Gauls, who had given them no offence, ſent ambaſſadors deſiring to know the cauſe of quarrel; but the latter, provoked at the haughty anſwer they received, and forgetting their character as ambaſſadors, joined the inhabitants of the city, headed them in a ſally, in which one of the principal officers of the Gauls was killed by Quintus Fabius the head of the Romans. Brennus, juſtly provoked at this treatment, broke up the ſiege of Cluſium, and marched towards Rome, with a deſign to commence hoſtilities againſt the republic, but firſt demanded that the ambaſſadors ſhould be given up to him in revenge for the inſult that had been offered; but this being denied, he marched directly towards the city. The Romans oppoſed him with a conſiderable army, but were entirely defeated, with ſuch loſs, that they abandoned their city; ſuch as were moſt valiant retreating into the capital which ſtood on the top of a rock, and was very ſtrongly fortified; the reſt retiring into the adjacent cities. The Gauls, in the mean time, took poſſeſſion of the empty houſes, maſſacring ſuch as had concealed themſelves, and then deſtroying the buildings, ſo that nothing remained of the whole but heaps of ruins. Brennus attacked the capital, but being repulſed with great loſs, he changed the ſiege into a blockade. While he continued before the place, however, he loſt a conſiderable number of his men, who were cut off by the inhabitants of Ardea, where the great Camillus reſided ever ſince his baniſhment from Rome. This ſucceſs having revived the drooping ſpirits of the Romans, Camillus was immediately choſen dictator, and took the proper methods for relieving the capital; but before this could be accompliſh-

ed, Brennus formed a ſcheme of taking at by ſurpriſe. For this purpoſe he employed a ſelect party of ſoldiers, natives of the mountainous parts of his territories, whom he ordered to aſcend the rock in the night time, and who, by being accuſtomed from their early years, to climb among rocks, ſeemed to be moſt likely to prove ſucceſsful. This was accordingly attempted with ſuch ſucceſs, that the Gauls got to the top of the rock undiſcovered, but were at laſt detected by a flock of geeſe, who alarmed at their approach, ran up and down cackling in ſuch a manner, that they awakened a gallant ſoldier, named Manlius, who had ſome time before been conſul. Having ſounded an alarm, he repaired immediately to the ramparts, where he found two Gauls already got up. One of theſe he puſhed down the rock with his buckler, and cut off the hand of the other, while the Romans inſtantly aſſembling, tumbled the reſt down the precipice as they advanced, ſo that very few got ſafe back to their camp. Notwithſtanding this diſaſter, Brennus continued the blockade till the Romans were reduced to the laſt extremity; but, in the mean time, he himſelf was in almoſt as bad a ſituation as they; for Camillus having ſeized upon all the paſſes which led to his camp, prevented in a great meaſure any ſupplies of proviſions from being received. A plague raged alſo in the camp, which carried off great numbers of his men; ſo that both parties becoming weary of ſuch a ruinous buſineſs, a treaty was concluded, by which it was agreed that the Gauls ſhould depart upon the Romans paying them 4000 pounds weight of gold as a ranſom. But while the gold was actually weighing, Camillus, having arrived with an army, drove away the Gauls, and the neighbouring country riſing upon them, they were all cut in pieces or taken.

The Romans, who had fled to the cities in the neighbourhood for fear of the Gauls, now returned; and the city was rebuilt in a much more ſplendid manner than before. The expence of building private houſes was partly defrayed by the public; but ſtill the city was conſtructed on the moſt confuſed and irregular plan imaginable; and from this it did not recover till the time of Auguſtus. No ſooner was the city reſtored, however, than all the neighbouring nations formed ſuch a combination for its deſtruction, that there ſeemed to be no poſſibility of eſcaping; but all of them were overthrown by Camillus with incredible ſucceſs; and in conſequence of this he had the moſt unbounded honours conferred upon him, inſomuch, that we may juſtly doubt whether he was not as much emperor of Rome, as any of thoſe who actually bore the title. Theſe wars being ended, the Romans turned their arms againſt the Samnites, a more diſtant people than any they had yet encountered, their territories lying about 100 miles eaſt from the city, and who were likewiſe accounted the moſt warlike nation in Italy. Theſe met with no better ſucceſs than the reſt, being overthrown with the loſs of 30,000 men. The Latins, however, not yet diſheartened, reſolved to make a laſt effort, and therefore called forth almoſt all that were able to bear arms among them, to decide the fate of the nation by one important battle. The event proved to the laſt degree unfortunate, ſcarce a fourth part having the good fortune to make their eſcape; ſo that they were once more forced to ſubmit to the Roman yoke.

Thus the conqueſt of all the Italian nations ſeemed not to be far diſtant, though they never yet had ſufficient penetration to diſcern that the only way to cruſh theſe terrible conquerors was to unite among themſelves, and lay aſide thoſe animoſities which conſtantly kept them in a weak

weak and divided ſtate. The inhabitants of Tarentum indeed perceived this neceſſity, but inſtead of allying with any of the ſtates of Italy, they invited to their aſſiſtance Pyrrhus king of Epirus, from whom, had he been ſucceſsful, they would have been in as great danger as from the Romans. This celebrated general, however, found that he had now to do with enemies nothing inferior to himſelf either in courage or military ſkill; and the conſequence was, that though he gained one victory with the army which he brought with him, yet being in a country where he could much leſs eaſily recruit, and none of the Italians with whom he was in alliance being in any reſpect equal to the Romans in the art of war, he was at laſt entirely defeated, and obliged to quit Italy and abandon his allies altogether. His departure was followed by a laſt effort on the part of the Samnites, ſimilar to that of the Latins already mentioned, and was attended with no better ſucceſs. They were overthrown with ſuch ſlaughter, that the whole were obliged to ſubmit, and their ſubmiſſion was quickly after followed by that of all the reſt of the Italian nations.

The Romans, now maſters of ſo large a tract of country, and ſo well ſkilled in the art of war, were more than a match for any other nation in the world. Our limits, however, will not allow us to enter particularly into the hiſtory of this celebrated people, of which we have already given a ſketch in the introduction. Under them Italy, notwithſtanding ſome occaſional invaſions and civil wars, continued to flouriſh, and the inhabitants perhaps to enjoy more quiet than thoſe of any other country in the world till the end of the fourth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, Hunns, and other barbarians. Rome itſelf was repeatedly taken, and at laſt, in 476, the whole was ſubdued by Odoacer, king of a German nation, called the *Heruli*, who took upon him the title of *king of Italy*. He did not, however, alter the Roman laws or cuſtoms, but ſuffered the people to be governed by a ſenate, conſuls, &c. as before. In 489 he was invaded by Theodoric the Oſtrogoth, whom the emperor of Conſtantinople had adviſed to turn his arms weſtward, in order to get rid of him himſelf. Odoacer behaved with great bravery, but was at laſt obliged to ſubmit, and was ſoon after treacherouſly killed at an entertainment by Theodoric himſelf, who likewiſe maſſacred all his friends and relations whom he could get into his power.

Theodoric aſſumed likewiſe the title of king of Italy, though he pretended to pay ſome deference to the emperor of Conſtantinople as his ſuperior. He choſe Ravenna for the place of his reſidence, that he might be nearer at hand to ſtop the incurſions of the barbarians, and applied himſelf not only to the defence of his territories, but the legiſlation of them with great aſſiduity. Beſides the officers appointed by the Romans, whom he allowed ſtill to remain, he appointed others named *Counts*, one of whom was ſent to each city to adminiſter juſtice. Under theſe he had others belonging even to the meaneſt villages, ſo that the people had not the trouble of applying to the governors of provinces for redreſs of little grievances, as was the caſe in the times of the Romans; and thus Italy was more happy under his adminiſtration than it had been under the beſt emperors. The virtues of this prince are greatly celebrated by all hiſtorians, but the end of his life was miſerable. Having impriſoned his father-in-law Symmachus, and the philoſopher Boethius, on an unjuſt ſuſpicion of treaſon, he raſhly cauſed them to be put to death; but no ſooner was the ſentence put in execution, than he aban-

doned himſelf to ſuch exceſs of ſorrow, that it affected his judgement; for, not long after, the head of a large fiſh being ſerved up to his ſupper, he imagined that it was the head of Symmachus threatening him on account of his murder, which imagination ſtruck him with ſuch horror, that he inſtantly fell into a fever, and died in a ſhort time.

After the death of Theodoric, the government devolved upon his widow Amalaſuntha, who was dethroned and put to death by one Theodotus her couſin, whom ſhe had aſſociated with herſelf in the kingdom. This brought on a war with the emperor Juſtinian, but Theodotus having neither capacity nor inclination for carrying on ſuch a dangerous conteſt, endeavoured to compromiſe matters, and even offered to reſign the kingdom entirely. This, however, he refuſed to perform; and in the mean time, by his puſilanimous conduct, ſo diſguſted his ſubjects, that they, with one conſent, depoſed him from the ſovereignty, and choſe one Vitiges in his room, by whom Theodotus was beheaded. This did not put an end to the war. Juſtinian was now bent on recovering Italy from the barbarians, and for that purpoſe employed the celebrated general Beliſarius, whom Vitiges was altogether unable to reſiſt. Leaving Rome, therefore, he retired to Ravenna, while Beliſarius took poſſeſſion of the ancient metropolis without oppoſition in the month of December 537. The Gothic prince next applied himſelf to the augmentation of his forces with ſuch ſucceſs, that he was ſoon at the head of 150,000 men, with whom he reſolved either to fight Beliſarius, or to beſiege him in Rome. That brave warrior, however, with only 5000 men, withſtood the efforts of the multitude who attended Vitiges, until ſuccours arrived from the eaſt, ſo that the Goths were forced to raiſe the ſiege with diſgrace, after having remained before the city for no leſs than a year and nine months. After this they undertook the ſiege of Rimini, with the like bad ſucceſs; but while the two parties were thus contending for the ſovereignty, a third enemy appeared, who threatened equal danger to both the Goths and Romans. Theſe were the Franks, who had at the commencement of the war been courted by both parties, had promiſed aſſiſtance to both, and proved equal traitors to both in the end. Their forces on this occaſion amounted to 150,000, or 200,000 men; ſo that, if properly conducted, they might have accompliſhed their purpoſe; eſpecially as the Goths, imagining that they came to their aſſiſtance, took care at firſt to ſupply them with proviſions. Thus they croſſed the Po without oppoſition; and having ſecured the bridge, marched towards the place where a body of Goths were encamped, who ſuppoſing them to be friends, admitted them without any heſitation. The Franks now convinced them of their miſtake, by driving them from their camp with great ſlaughter, and ſeizing upon all their baggage and proviſions. The Romans now fell into a ſimilar miſtake, imagining that the Goths had been defeated by Beliſarius, or that the Franks were in alliance with him. The conſequence of this was, that a large body of them were alſo deſtroyed, and their camp ſeized. Thus the Franks made themſelves maſters of a conſiderable booty and ſtore of proviſions; but theſe were the only exploits they had it in their power to perform; for their proviſions being ſoon exhauſted, and all the country around them entirely deſtroyed, they were obliged to return, after having loſt great numbers by famine.

After the return of the Franks, the war between the Romans and Goths continued with great vigour, though ſucceſs declared entirely for

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the Romans, and Vitiges having long been beſieged in Ravenna, was at laſt obliged to ſurrender to a body of men ſo inconſiderable, that, when they entered the town, the Gothic women reviled their huſbands as cowards, and even ſpit in their faces. Even this did not put an end to the war. The Goths had ſurrendered to Beliſarius himſelf as king of Italy, thinking that he deſigned to revolt from the emperor. Surpriſed therefore at his leaving them a ſhort time after at the emperor's command, they choſe one Ildebald, a man of great experience, both in civil and military affairs, for their king. By him their drooping ſpirits were ſoon revived, and the Romans every where defeated: but he being ſoon after murdered, one Eraric, a Rugian, was raiſed to the throne; and he being in like manner diſpatched, Totila ſucceeded in 542.

The new monarch ſhewed himſelf no leſs capable of retrieving the affairs of his kingdom than Ildebald had been. The Romans were ſo often defeated, that they at laſt refuſed to take the field againſt the enemy, being further diſcouraged by not having received the ſums they expected as their wages. Juſtinian, to retrieve matters, ſent a fleet to the relief of Naples, which was then beſieged by the Goths. But Totila, having timely notice of his deſign, manned, with great expedition, a number of light-armed veſſels, which, falling unexpectedly on the Roman fleet, ſunk or took every one of them, making priſoners of all on board, excepting a few who eſcaped in their boats. A ſimilar fate attended another fleet diſpatched from Sicily for the ſame purpoſe. This indeed was partly owing to their own imprudence; for, putting to ſea in the depth of winter, they met with ſuch a violent ſtorm, that they were driven aſhore near the camp of the enemy, who ſunk the ſhips, and made what ſlaughter they pleaſed of the ſeamen and ſoldiers. The Neapolitans now, ſuppoſing all farther reſiſtance to be vain, ſubmitted to the Goths; and on this occaſion the humanity of Totila was very remarkable. Knowing that the inhabitants had been pinched for want of proviſions, he was afraid that, by indulging in an exceſs of food at firſt, many of them might endanger their healths. For this reaſon he placed guards at the gates of the city to prevent their going out, but at the ſame time took care to ſupply them with proviſions, ſparingly at firſt, but increaſing the allowance daily, as he thought the ſtate of their bodies would allow. The garriſon he treated with unheard of, and indeed with very imprudent generoſity. At firſt he intended to ſupply them with veſſels to convey them to Conſtantinople; but finding that, notwithſtanding this kindneſs, they had treacherouſly harboured intentions of going to Rome to reinforce the garriſon there, he not only did not puniſh them according to their deſerts, but furniſhed them with waggons and proviſions for their paſſage thither by land, as the weather had proved unfavourable for conveying them by ſea.

The ſucceſs of this magnanimous prince for ſome time continued to be very remarkable. Many towns ſurrendered, others taken by ſtorm, until at laſt, Rome itſelf was almoſt totally blocked up by ſea and land. Juſtinian, on the news of ſo many diſaſters, recalled Beliſarius from Perſia, where he had gained great advantages over his enemies, and ſent him into Italy; but the progreſs of Totila had now been ſo great, that it was beyond the power of Beliſarius himſelf to prevent Rome from falling into his hands. He made many attempts indeed to relieve this celebrated metropolis; but all of them, however well concerted, were one way or other rendered abortive. The inhabitants were ſoon

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reduced to the greateſt ſtraits for want of proviſions, and are even ſaid to have fed on their own excrements, andmany, unable to bear ſuch miſeries, put and end to their own lives. The governor for a long time cruelly refuſed to let them go out of the city, but at laſt gave them this permiſſion when it was too late, for moſt of thoſe who attempted their eſcape died of hunger, or were killed by the Goths. At laſt the gates were privately opened to the enemy in the night-time, and though very few were killed, the city was ſo effectually plundered, that nothing remained in it but the bare walls of the houſes.

Thus Totila once more became king of Italy; after which, he ſent a very reſpectful embaſſy to Juſtinian, deſiring to live in friendſhip with him as Theodoric had done with his father: In caſe of the emperor's refuſal, he threatened to level Rome with the ground, to put all the ſenate to the ſword, and to carry the war into Illyricum. The emperor referred every thing to Beliſarius, upon which Totila reſolved to deſtroy the city, but was diſſuaded from his intentions by a letter from Beliſarius, after he had already demoliſhed a third part of the wall. All the inhabitants, however, were now removed to the neighbouring cities; but this anſwered no good purpoſe; for Beliſarius quickly had it peopled anew, and the inhabitants now defended themſelves ſo vigorouſly, that Totila found it impoſſible to make himſelf maſter of it by force. In the mean time, however, Beliſarius being recalled from Italy, in order to proſecute the war againſt the Perſians, Totila procured aſſiſtance from the Lombards, and, returning before Rome, made himſelf maſter of the city a ſecond time. He then diſpatched ambaſſadors again to Juſtinian, offering to aſſiſt him as a faithful ally againſt any hoſtile power, provided he would allow him the quiet poſſeſſion of Italy; but ſo diſagreeable was this propoſition to the emperor, that he would not even allow the ambaſſadors to appear in his preſence. Totila therefore made all the preparations in his power for reſiſting ſuch a formidable enemy. He not only reduced the few places which the Romans ſtill held in Italy, but the iſland of Sicily alſo, and ſent a fleet to ravage the coaſt of Greece, which they did with great ſucceſs. At laſt, this fleet being entirely defeated, Totila once more ſent ambaſſadors; but theſe meeting with the ſame bad reception as the former, he was obliged to ſtand upon his defence; and after having reduced the iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia, was totally defeated by Narſes the Roman general, with the loſs of 6000 men. The king fled only with five attendants, and was mortally wounded in the purſuit; however, he continued his flight ſome time longer, until at laſt, being obliged to ſtop to have his wound dreſſed, he expired immediately after.

The Goths, now finding themſelves in ſuch extreme danger, choſe for their king one Teia, deſervedly eſteemed one of the moſt valiant men of the nation; but all his valour and experience were now inſufficient to ſtop the progreſs of the Romans. Narſes made himſelf maſter of a great number of cities, and even of Rome itſelf, before the Goths could even aſſemble their forces; but having laid ſiege to Cumæ, where the royal treaſure was lodged, Teia determined to relieve it at all events. This produced an engagement, which, according to the hiſtorian Procopius, was one of the moſt bloody that ever were fought. The Roman army conſiſted of vaſt multitudes brought from many different nations, while the Goths, though comparatively few in number, yet, being driven

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to deſpair, they fought with the utmoſt fury. Teia placed himſelf in the firſt rank, and is ſaid to have given ſuch proofs of his valour, as equalled him with the moſt renowned heroes of antiquity. At laſt he was diſcovered by the enemy to be the Gothic monarch, on which he was attacked by ſome with ſpears, by others with darts and arrows; all being eager to deſtroy him, as knowing that his death would probably decide the fate of the battle, and the war alſo. Teia received the attack with great intrepidity, and killed a number of the aſſailants with his own hand. He protected himſelf againſt the miſſive weapons, by means of his ſhield, on which he caught them with great dexterity; but as they ſtuck in it ſo that it became unmanageable, he was obliged to call for another. This he repeated three times, but as he was about to change it another time, by which means his breaſt was neceſſarily expoſed for a moment, a dart ſtruck him that moment with ſuch force, that he inſtantly fell down dead in the very ſpot where he had ſtood from the beginning of the battle. The Romans cut off his head and right hand, which they expoſed to the enemy, imagining that they would inſtantly betake themſelves to flight; but in this they were miſtaken: The Goths not only continued the engagement till night, but renewed it next morning, and fought the whole day without giving ground. On the third day, deſpairing of being able to overcome ſuch a multitude of enemies, they ſent deputies to Narſes, offering to lay down their arms, provided ſuch of them as choſe to remain in Italy ſhould be allowed quiet poſſeſſion of their eſtates, and thoſe who choſe to depart, ſhould be ſuffered to do ſo. This being readily agreed to, Italy became once more a province of the Roman empire.

After the deſtruction of the empire of the Goths, Narſes continued to govern Italy in as abſolute a mannner as any of their kings could have done; but being at laſt recalled, and, as is ſaid, inſulted by the empreſs on account of his being an eunuch, he invited before his departure, Alboinus, king of the Lombards, who at that time were ſettled in Pannonia. This invitation being readily accepted, the whole nation ſet out from their dwellings at once, carrying with them all their effects. The Italians fled before theſe barbarians in great numbers, while the Lombards took poſſeſſion of the territories they had left without any oppoſition. It was not, however, in the power of the Lombards to make themſelves maſters of the whole country, nor indeed hath any one nation, ſince the expulſion of the Goths been able to do ſo. The empire of the Lombards was ruined by Charles the Great, as has been related in the hiſtory of France, but he proved equally unſucceſsful in his attempts to reduce the whole. Some of the ſouthern provinces were ſtill in the poſſeſſion of the emperors of Conſtantinople; and, by the grants of Pepin and Charlemagne himſelf to the Pope, the latter became inveſted with conſiderable temporal power. The territories of the Pope indeed were always ſuppoſed to be held in vaſſalage to France, but this the Pontiffs themſelves denied. The territories of Charles the Great in Italy, therefore, conſiſted of Piedmont, the Milaneſe, Mantua, Genoa, Parma, Modena, Tuſcany, Bologna, the dukedoms of Friuli, Spoleta, and Benivento, the laſt containing the greateſt part of the kingdom of Naples.

Under the Lombards, the ſtate of Italy was far from being equal to what it was in the time of the Goths. They introduced the feudal government, which naturally produced revolts and commotions, as the

differeat dukes or marquiſes inclined to ſet up for themſelves, or to change their maſters. Several inſtances of this occurred during the life of Charlemagne himſelf; but all theſe he had the good fortune to quaſh; though, after his death, the ſovereignty of Italy became an object of contention between the kings of France and emperors of Germany. The extenſive dominions of Charles had been divided among his children; but all of them died during his lifetime, excepting Louis, whom he aſſociated with him in the empire, and at his death left ſole heir to all that he poſſeſſed. At the time that this Louis was declared emperor of the Weſt, Italy was held by Bernard the ſon of Pepin brother to Louis; but though Bernard bore the title of king, he was accounted only the emperor's vaſſal. Not ſatisfied with this inferior ſtation, he rebelled againſt his uncle, but was defeated and taken priſoner, and had his eyes pulled out, in conſequence of which, he died in three days. His death did not put an end to theſe diſturbances. Lothaire, therefore, the eldeſt ſon of the emperor, was ſent to Italy in 823; where he was firſt crowned king of Italy, and afterwards emperor of the Weſt, during his father's lifetime. But though he might eaſily have ſettled every thing in a ſtate of tranquillity, his ambition prompted him to rebel againſt his father, whom he took priſoner ſeveral times, but at laſt was obliged to ſubmit, and aſk pardon for his offences; which he obtained only on condition of his not paſſing the Alps, without leave obtained from his father. In the mean time the Saracens, taking advantage of theſe diſturbances, landed on the coaſt of Italy, and committed every where ſuch ravages, that even the biſhops were obliged to arm themſelves in defence of the country. All this was beheld with unconcern by Lothaire; who, inſtead of attempting to put a ſtop to the progreſs of the barbarians, ſeized on ſome places belonging to the ſee of Rome, which he refuſed to give up, till he was expreſsly commanded by his father to forbear ſuch encroachments. After having embroiled himſelf, and loſt almoſt all his dominions in war with his brothers, after the death of Louis, and declared his ſon, called alſo Louis, king of Italy, this turbunleut and ambitious prince died, leaving to his ſon the title of emperor alſo.

Louis applied himſelf to the reſtoration of the affairs of his kingdom, drove the Saracens out of Italy, and obliged them to retire into Africa; but dying in 875 without naming any ſucceſſor, the diſturbances were renewed. It was repreſented to the Pope, by the duke of Tuſcany, at the head of ſome other Italian nobles, that, as Louis had left no ſucceſſor, the regal dignity, which had ſo long been uſurped by foreigners, ought now to return to the Italians. The Pope, however, determined to beſtow the crown upon Charles the Bald, king of France, who ſeemed to be ſo ambitious of it, that he would ſtick at no price to obtain it. This was accordingly done, and Charles was obliged to declare that he held the crown only in virtue of the Pope's gift. The conſequence was, that a conſpiracy was formed among the diſcontented nobles; and the Saracens, renewing their incurſions, threatened the eccleſiaſtical territories with the utmoſt danger. The Pope moſt earneſtly ſolicited protection from the emperor; but he died before any thing effectual could be done; ſo that the Pope, finding himſelf diſtreſſed, and ſurrounded by enemies on all ſides, was obliged to take refuge in France. The greateſt confuſion now took place throughout all Italy, and many of the Lombard ſtates and nobles aſſumed an independence, which they have ever ſince maintained. In 879, the Pope was reſtored by Boſon, ſon-in-law to Louis II. of

France; but he found his intereſt too weak to raiſe this prince to the dignity of king of Italy, which he very much inclined to have done. Though the nobles who had driven out the Pope were now reconciled to him, matters yet continued even in a worſe ſtate than before; the great men renouncing the authority of any ſuperior whatever, and every one aſſuming the ſovereignty in their own territories: the Saracens alſo renewed their depredations in ſuch a manner, that the Italians, finding the feeble princes of the Carlovingian race unable to protect them, reſolved to throw off all nominal ſubjection to them. With this view, the nobility went to Pope Adrian in the year 885, from whom they obtained the two following decrees, viz. that the Popes, after their election, might be conſecrated without waiting for the king or his ambaſſadors; and that, if Charles the Groſs, emperor at that time, died without male iſſue, the kingdom of Italy, with the title of emperor, ſhould be conferred on ſome of the Italian nobles.

By theſe decrees, matters were unhappily rendered much worſe than ever. The emperor complained that he was deprived of his right; and the diſſenſions of the nobles came to the moſt dreadful extremities. The two moſt powerful rivals at this time were Berengarius duke of Friuli, and Guido, or Vido, of Spoleto. Imagining, however, that both might ſhare equally in the ſpoils which were likely to be derived from the preſent troubled ſtate of affairs, they came to an agreement, on condition that, when the emperor died, the former ſhould have the kingdom of Italy, and the latter that of France. Berengarius ſucceeded in his ſcheme, but Guido was diſappointed in his, by reaſon of the French having already choſen Eudes, or Otho, for their king. Enraged at this diſappointment, he returned to Italy, defeated Berengarius, and drove him into Germany, where he ſolicited the aſſiſtance of Arnolphus, who had ſucceeded to the Imperial crown after the death of Charles. Arnolphus quickly ſent an army into Italy, at the ſame time that the Saracens, hoping alſo to profit by the diſtracted ſtate of affairs, invaded the country from Spain, ravaged the northern parts, and, having got poſſeſſion of a caſtle in the neighbourhood of the Alps, held it for many years afterwards, to the great annoyance of all the country round. Benevento was about this time alſo taken by the eaſtern emperor; ſo that Guido, diſtreſſed and overpowered by ſo many enemies, was obliged to bribe the Germans to return to their own country; and to eaſe himſelf a little of the weight of government in this deſperate emergency, he aſſociated his ſon Lambert with himſelf in the government. This expedient, however, proved only a temporary relief from the Germans; for, in 893, they returned, and put Berengarius in poſſeſſion of Pavia. During theſe tranſactions Guido died, and his ſon Lambert drove out Berengarius a ſecond time; but new miſchiefs ſtill awaited him; for, having taken the part of one Sergius againſt Formoſus the reigning Pope, he offered the kingdom of Italy to Arnolphus. The latter did not heſitate at accepting the offer; and having entered the country with a great army, beſieged and took Rome, maſſacring the Sergian faction with the utmoſt cruelty. Thus, becoming at once maſter of Italy, he began to form deſigns of ſtrengthening himſelf by depriving Berengarius of his flight; but the latter avoided the danger by flying to Verona; and ſoon after the Italians, provoked at the cruelty of Arnolphus, drove him out of the country, notwithſtanding his having received the Imperial crown from the Pope himſelf. Every thing was now thrown into

the utmoſt confuſion, which was, if poſſible, increaſed by the death of Formoſus himſelf ſoon after. His body was dug up and thrown into the Tiber by one Pope; while that Pope was ſtrangled, and the body of Formoſus fiſhed up, and ſumptuouſly interred by a third. At laſt the coronation of Arnolphus was declared null and void, the Sergian faction entirely demoliſhed, and the decrees of Adrian already mentioned annulled: it being now determined that the elected Popes ſhould not be conſecrated, but in the preſence of the emperor or his ambaſſadors.

Thus the Italian affairs ſeemed to be once more reduced to ſome kind of order; but no ſooner were the diſturbances on this account quieted, than they broke out in another quarter. Lambert had hitherto enjoyed his kingdom in peace; but now a number of the people, diſguſted with his cruelty and arbitrary behaviour, or perhaps impelled by their natural fickleneſs, began to turn their eyes again towards Berengarius; while another faction declared for Lewis of Arles. The latter entered Italy with an army in 899, but met with ſuch bad ſucceſs, that he was obliged not only to renounce his preſent claim upon oath, but to ſwear that he would never enter Italy again, even if he ſhould be invited to receive the Imperial crown. This oath, however, was ſoon forgot; for in no longer ſpace than two years, Lewis entered the country on another invitation, and obliged Berengarius himſelf to fly into Bavaria; but, having afterwards imprudently diſbanded his army, his rival returned, and having ſeized him before he was aware, put out his eyes, by which he ſecured himſelf effectually on the throne of Italy.

The Italians, now freed from domeſtic broils, began to ſuffer from the attacks of foreign enemies. The Hungarians entered the country with a formidable army, and advanced as far as Pavia; but Berengarius appeared in the field with ſuch a multitude of forces, that they retired without coming to an engagement. The king purſued, and reduced them to ſuch ſtraits, that they offered to reſtore all their booty, and promiſe never more to enter the country, if he would allow them to retire unmoleſted. Theſe conditions he imprudently denied; upon which the Hungarians, in deſpair, attacked his camp, and utterly defeated his numerous forces. After this, they overran the whole country; and as the army already defeated had contained the whole ſtrength of the kingdom, no farther oppoſition could be made. The enemy, therefore, continued their devaſtations for two years, nor was their departure procured at laſt without paying them a large ſum of money. This, like almoſt all other expedients of the kind mentioned in hiſtory, proved of little avail. Next year, the Hungarians returned, and ravaged the duchy of Friuli without controul; at the ſame time that the Saracens, who had ſettled at the foot of the Alps, invaded Apulia and Calabria, making an irruption as far as the neighbourhood of Pavia; while the inhabitants, inſtead of oppoſing them, fled to ſome forts which had been erected in the time of the Hungarians. At laſt one of the Saracens, who had been injured by his countrymen, fled to Rome, and offered to deliver the whole country from their oppreſſions, if the Pope would but allow him a ſmall body of men. This being agreed to, the Saracen demanded no more than 60, all of them young and well armed. Theſe being conducted by the Saracen through by-paths, fell upon the robbers as they were returning with their booty, and frequently made great havoc among them. By theſe loſſes, the Saracens were ſo much alarmed, that having fortified a town on the river Garigliano, they abandoned all their

other

other places of reſidence, and retired thither; thus collecting their force into one place, and becoming much more formidable than before. The Pope finding that the whole country was thus likely to be overrun with theſe Barbarians, conſulted with Ataulphus biſhop of Benevento and Capua, ſending at the ſame time ambaſſadors to the emperor at Conſtantinople, craving aſſiſtance againſt the Infidels. The Saracens now, finding themſelves totally unable to reſiſt ſuch a powerful combination, inſtead of being capable of making excurſions from their city as formerly, were cooped up and beſieged in it. At laſt they made a deſperate ſally, in order to eſcape into the woods; but, being purſued by the Italians, they were all cut off to a man.

Berengarius now to the title of king of Italy had that of emperor added, probably on account of the ſervices he had done in the war againſt the Saracens; and this gave occaſion to new diſcontents and conſpiracies amongſt the nobles. In conſequence of theſe, Rhodolphus was alſo crowned, and Berengarius aſſaſſinated; the Hungarians, taking advantage of the confuſion with which the country was filled, made an irruption, plundered and burnt ſeveral cities, among which was that of Pavia, whoſe inhabitants they treated with the greateſt cruelty; and then having ſtaid to collect all the booty they could carry off, they returned to their own country without oppoſition. This diſaſter did not make the Italians wiſer. The internal diſſenſions went on as before, or rather became much worſe. A faction was formed againſt Rhodolphus, in favour of Hugh, count of Arles; and the latter prevailing, was crowned king at Pavia in 927. The fickle Italians, however, ſoon repented of their choice; the Romans firſt invited him to be their governor, and then drove him out with diſgrace; chooſing at the ſame time conſuls, tribunes, &c. as if they meant to reſtore the ancient republic. The crown, in the mean time, was offered to Rhodolphus by one faction, while the other offered it to Arnold, duke of Bavaria; and while theſe factions were at war with each other, the Saracens took the opportunity of ſeizing on the republic of Genoa. At laſt Hugh Count of Arles being freed from all danger by the defeat of Arnold, and gaining the friendſhip of Rhodolphus, marched againſt the Romans; but matters were happily compromiſed without bloodſhed. But ſtill the country was filled with the utmoſt confuſion; the Saracens and Hungarians ravaged various parts, while a plague infeſted the whole; endleſs conſpiracies were formed againſt Hugh himſelf; and in 947, he was depoſed by Berengarius, grandſon to the former king of that name, after which he turned monk.

Matters were little mended by the acceſſion of the new monarch; the Hungarians invaded the country on one ſide, and Henry duke of Bavaria did the ſame on another. Berengarius, utterly unable to reſiſt ſuch powerful enemies, was obliged to buy peace from the Hungarians; and in raiſing the ſum for this purpoſe he is ſaid to have been more oppreſſive than even the enemy themſelves. Every one, beggars not excepted, was obliged to pay ſo much for their head; while the king, inſtead of beſtowing the money thus exerted upon thoſe to whom he had promiſed it, kept the much greater part to himſelf. Not ſatisfied with this, he began to form ſchemes for obtaining poſſeſſion of Pavia, which was ſtill held by Adelaide the widow of Lotharius, ſon to the count of Arles already mentioned. For this purpoſe he propoſed a marriage between her and his ſon Adelbert; but the propoſal being rejected, he beſieged

and took the city. Adelaide was reduced to great hardſhips; but was at laſt relieved by Otho I. emperor of Germany, who married her, allowing Berengarius, however, to retain the greateſt part of his dominions; but the latter, having oppreſſed his ſubjects in a moſt tyrannical manner, at laſt revolted againſt Otho himſelf, and was by him defeated and depoſed; the crown of Italy being now annexed to the Imperial one.

In the hiſtory of Germany we have given an account of the ſtate of Italy under the German emperors, and by what means their power came to decline. The exemption of the Italians from the German yoke did not contribute to their happineſs. The factions of the Guelphs and Gibelines indeed, who were the remote cauſes of it, deluged the country with blood for a great number of years; and the hiſtory of Italy, during that period, is no more than a detail of their ſlaughters of one another. The Guelphs maintained the power of the Pope againſt the emperor, and the Gibelines that of the emperor againſt the Pope. Their origin is uncertain; but the moſt probable opinion is, that they aroſe about the year 1240, at which time the emperor Frederic II. was excommunicated by the Pope; though others ſay that they aroſe from a quarrel between two illuſtrious families in Germany, viz. Henry of Gibeling and Guelph of Adorff. Be this as it will, they continued to deſtroy each other as long as the Imperial power continued to have much ſhare in the government of Italy. Though they had at firſt ſet up as partiſans of the Pope and emperor, yet at laſt theſe pretences ſerved only as an excuſe for the different cities to make war upon each other. The moſt deſperate battles then took place, in which the exploits of Caſtruccio Caſtraccani, and Sir John Hawkwood, an Engliſhman, are greatly celebrated. An account of theſe wars is given in many volumes by Guicciardini, but a detail of them is equally inconſiſtent with our limits, and unimportant in itſelf; nothing being ever effected by the utmoſt efforts of valour, and the parties being commonly obliged to ſit down at the end of the war as they began. If it is ſurpriſing that this ſhould have been ſo often the caſe, it is ſtill more ſo, that notwithſtanding all this war and tumult, from which Italy ſcarce ever had reſt for more than 2000 years, they ſhould ſtill have been far from being formidable to other nations, or well ſkilled in the military art. A moſt glaring inſtance of this is, that Charles VIII. of France ſubdued the whole kingdom of Naples in leſs than ſix weeks, and might eaſily have made himſelf maſter of all Italy, had it not been for his own imprudence. The various attempts of this nation, as well as of the kings of Spain and the emperors of Germany upon this country, have been already related in the hiſtories of France, Spain, and Germany; from which the reader will eaſily be able to trace the events which led to the ſettlement of Italy in its preſent ſtate of tranquillity, and which in all probability muſt continue for a conſiderable time.

TURKEY, or the Dominions of the GRAND SIGNIOR.

THIS may be conſidered, if not the moſt powerful, probably as the moſt extenſive European empire; comprehending a very conſiderable part of the continents of Europe, Aſia, and Africa, all of which, taken together, may be ſuppoſed to contain a million of ſquare miles. At preſent, however, we are only to conſider

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

Extent, Situation, &c. THIS country, comprehending ancient Greece, Macedon, and ſome other kingdoms celebrated in antiquity, lies between 36 and 49 degrees of north latitude, and 16 and 40 of eaſt longitude, being in length about 1000 miles, and not much leſs in breadth; but by reaſon of the great inequalities in this reſpect, its ſquare ſuperfices is by no means proportioned to theſe dimenſions, it not being ſuppoſed to contain more than 152,000 ſquare miles. On the weſt it is bounded by the territories of Venice and Auſtria; on the eaſt by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, Propontis, Helleſpont, now the Dardanelles, and the Archipelago; on the north by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia; and on the ſouth by the Mediterranean: the preſent diviſions are ſhewn in the Table.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north coaſt of the Black Sea are the provinces of	Crim and Little Tartary, and the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus	Precop Bacziſeria Kaffa	26,210
	Budziac Tartary	Oczakow	12,010
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Beſſarabia	Bender Belgorod	8,010
	Moldavia, olim Dacia	Jazy Choczim Falczin	26,010
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Tergoviſc	10,520

South

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Mysia	Widin Nicopoli Silistria Scopia	17,000
	Servia, the west part of Mysia	Belgrade Semendria Nissa	22,560
	Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum.	Seraio	8,646
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont	Romania, olim Thrace	Constantinople N. l. 41°. E. l. 29'. Adrianople	21,210
South of Mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Macedonia	Strymon Contessa	18,989
	Thessaly, now Janua	Salonichi Larissa	4,652
	Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia	Athens Thebes Lepanto	3,421
On the Adriatic sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Epirus	Chimera Burtinto	7,956
	Albina	Scodra Durazzo Dulcigno	6,374
	Dalmatia	Zara Narenza	4,560
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the fourth division of Greece, are	Corinthia	Corinth	7,230
	Argos	Argos Napoli de Romania	
	Sparta	Lacedæmon, now Misitra, on the river Eurotus	
	Olympia, where the Games were held	Olympia, or Loginca on the river Alpheus	
	Arcadia	Modon Coron	
	Elis	Partas Elis or Belvidere on the river Peneus.	

To

To theſe provinces juſt mentioned, moſt geographers add the republic of Raguſa; but this, though ſeated on the borders of Turkey, does not make part of it. It is but a ſmall place, not above two miles in circumference, ſtanding near the ſite of the ancient Epidaurus, and is an ariſtocratical ſtate, formerly under the protection of the grand ſignior, or the Venetians, but now of the king of Naples. They are, however, it would ſeem, in perpetual danger, as they allow the gates of their city to be open only a few hours every day. They apply themſelves much to trade, and are a kind of naval carriers in the Mediterranean, like what the Dutch are ſaid to be in other parts. They are conſtantly at peace with the piratical ſtates of Barbary. They have five ſmall iſlands, the chief of which is called *Melida*, and there are two other cities, called Gravoſa and Stagne, 30 miles N. E. of Raguſa, within their juriſdiction. They ſpeak the Sclavonian language, and profeſs the Popiſh religion, but other ſects are tolerated.

Air, Soil, &c. The air of this extenſive country is generally accounted extremely wholeſome, though from ſome cauſes, which in all probability will never be explained, the inhabitants have in all ages been ſubject to the plague. This indeed has been attributed to the indolence and naſtineſs of the inhabitants; though it does not appear to have been otherwiſe either when poſſeſſed by the Greeks or Romans. Nevertheleſs the ſeaſons are regular and pleaſant, and the ſoil generally fruitful. All over the country alſo, the water is pure and wholeſome.

Mountains. Theſe are the moſt celebrated of any in the world. Athos in Macedonia is famous in antiquity, not only for its height, but for the paſſage cut through it by Xerxes in his invaſion of Greece. It ſtands upon a peninſula, which ſtretches into the Egean Sea; and it was this iſthmus, rather than the mountain itſelf which Xerxes cut through, in order to furniſh a paſſage for his ſhips. The iſthmus is about a mile and an half in breadth. The mountain is ſuppoſed to be about a mile and a half in height; and the higher parts were by the ancients reckoned extremely healthy. A great number of monks now dwell upon it, and it is called the Holy Mountain; but whence it derived its ſanctity does not ſo plainly appear. Olympus, now mount Lachna, in Theſſaly, was celebrated for its extraordinary height, inſomuch, as to be made the ſeat of the gods themſelves; but by modern travellers, it is ſuppoſed to be little more than a mile in height. Pindus is alſo a mountain very much celebrated by the ancients, and is one of thoſe which ſeparate Theſſaly from Epirus. Hæmus is the higheſt mountain in Romania, and divides this province from Bulgaria. Its modern name is Rhodope. Parnaſſus in Achaia has been celebrated all over the world, as ſacred to Apollo, and the ſeat of the muſes. It lies in the weſtern part of Achaia, now Livadia, to the northward of the Gulf of Lepanto. It has two tops, whence it formerly took the denomination of *Biceps*, or two-headed. It abounds in ſprings, and there is a famous fountain named Caſtalia, of which the Pythoneſs and poets who pretended to inſpiration, uſed to drink, and where they commonly bathed themſelves. Moſt of the other mountains in Greece are now no longer known by their ancient names.

Seas. The principal of theſe are the Euxine, or Black Sea; the Sea of Aſoph, or Paulus Mæotis; the ſea of Marmora, which ſeparates Europe from Aſia; the Archipelago, and the Levant. The Euxine Sea, which as far as it goes, ſeparates Europe from Aſia, is about 700 miles long, nearly in the

the direction of eaſt and weſt, and has a current perpetually running into it through the Boſphorus, or Strait of Conſtantinople, as the Mediterranean has through that of Gibraltar. Notwithſtanding this, it has no viſible outlet, nor is it ever more full at one time than another; whence it is probable, that in all theſe ſeas, there is alſo an under current, which carries off as much water through the Strait of Gibraltar, as what flows in from the Atlantic by the upper one. The Sea of Aſoph is about 240 miles long, bounded on the north and north-weſt by Little Tartary; on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by Crim Tartary; and on the ſouth, ſouth-eaſt, and eaſt by Circaſſian Tartary. It communicates on the ſouth with the Euxine Sea by the Straits of Kaffa, and its waters are formed by the conflux of thoſe of the river Don, with what flows thro' theſe Straits from the Euxine Sea; ſo that it reſembles rather a great marſh than a real ſea, and appears formerly to have been fordable, of which we have an example in the hiſtory of Hungary. The Sea of Marmora, the ancient Propontis, lies between the Helleſpont or Dardanelles, and the Thracian Boſphorus, or Strait of Conſtantinople; by the latter communicates with the Euxine or Black Sea to the north-eaſt; and by the former with the Archipelago to the ſouth-weſt. It is about 120 miles in length, and near 50 in breadth. In it is ſituated the iſland of Præconneſus, famous in ancient hiſtory for its marble quarries; from whence the ſea took the name *Marmora*. The Archipelago, formerly called the *Egæan Sea*, has Romania, Macedonia, and Greece on the north, north-weſt, and weſt, and Natolia, or Aſia Minor, on the eaſt. It is full of iſlands, many of which were famous in ancient hiſtory. Engliſh ſailors call it the *Arches*. The Levant is the eaſtern part of the Mediteranean.

Straits. Theſe are the Helleſpont, or Dardanelles, which ſeparate Romania from Natolia on the ſouth-eaſt; Boſphorus, which ſeparates them on the north-eaſt; the Straits of Caffa or Kaffa, which join the Euxine Sea and Paulus Mæotis; and the Euripus, which ſeparates Eubæa from the continent of Greece. The Helleſpont is only two miles and an half in breadth, and is famous for the paſſage of Xerxes over it when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition againſt Aſia. The former, for the more eaſy tranſportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is alſo celebrated by the poets in the ſtory of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom the latter ſwam acroſs it to his miſtreſs; but one night was unhappily drowned. The Boſphorus is much about the ſame in breadth, but has not had the ſame good fortune with its ſouthern neighbour, in being ſo much celebrated by hiſtorians and poets. The Straits of Kaffa are about the ſame breadth with the other two, but are conſiderably ſhorter. The Euripus is ſo narrow, that a row-veſſel can ſcarce get through, and is ſaid formerly to have been joined to the continent by a narrow neck of land, but it is now joined to it by a bridge. It is remarkable for the irreguliarty of its tides. According to the obſervations of Babin the Jeſuit, the ebb and flood are regular during the firſt eight days of the moon, and likewiſe from the fourteenth to the twentieth incluſive; but all the other days they are very irregular; as, within 24 or 25 hours, it has ſometimes 11, 12, 13, and 14 tides; and then the water is but half an hour in riſing, and three quarters in falling; but, when regular, the tides are the ſame as in the ocean. This ebbing and flowing is perceived ten or a dozen leagues off on each ſide. It became a proverb among the Greeks; and

Ariſtotle is ſaid to have precipitated himſelf into it, becauſe he could not find out the reaſon of ſuch irregularity.

Lakes and Rivers. The lakes of Turkey in Europe are remarkable rather for what has been ſaid of them by the ancients, than for their extent or other properties. That of *Stymphalus* lies in the Morea, the ancient Peloponneſus; and is celebrated by the writers of antiquity on account of the monſtrous birds called Harpies, and from the place of their abode, Stymphalides, which inhabited it. The Lago di Scutari in Albania is ſtill taken notice of by modern geographers.

The rivers are all famous in antiquity, though not in proportion to their magnitude, or the utility they might be of in commerce or inland navigation, but as they happened to become ſubjects of the poets fancy. Thus, the Danube, the Save, the Neiſter, the Neiper, or the Don, are ſeldom mentioned, while many inſignificant ſtreams are celebrated to the higheſt degree in the verſes of the poets. The Danube and the Save have been already mentioned, when treating of Germany and Hungary, and their courſes, as well as thoſe of the Neiper and Neiſter, may eaſily be traced upon the map. The Don, by the ancients, was ſuppoſed to form part of the boundary between Europe and Aſia.

Mineral, Vegetable, and Animal Productions. This country produces all kinds of metals, and in the time of Philip king of Macedon, Thrace was famous for its gold mines. At preſent, as well as formerly, the fineſt marbles in the world are produced here. The vegetables are every where excellent, and would deſerve ſtill greater commendation, if aſſiſted by proper culture. Fruits of every kind arrive at the utmoſt perfection, particularly grapes, which have an uncommon ſweetneſs; and the figs, olives, and almonds, are likewiſe excellent. Many medicinal articles, not known in other countries, are alſo produced here. Both horſes and black cattle are excellent, eſpecially the former; thoſe of Theſſaly being greatly eſteemed both for beauty and ſervice. The goats are likewiſe in high eſtimation, and there are plenty of partridges and other kinds of game; but the Turks are not very fond of animal food. There are a kind of large eagles, which furniſh the Turks with feathers for their arrows, and which are here ſold at a very high price,

Antiquities and Curioſities. Volumes have been written on the antiquities of Greece, which, however, are ſtill in a great meaſure unknown, by reaſon of the difficulty of getting acceſs to places inhabited by the Turks. On the iſthmus of Corinth are ſtill to be ſeen the ruins of magnificent temples dedicated to Neptune, the Sun, Diana, Pluto, Ceres, and Bacchus; as alſo of the wall built acroſs the iſthmus by the Lacedæmonians, to ſecure the Peloponneſus from the incurſions of the Athenians. The Iſthmian games were celebrated on mount Oneius near this city, where the remains of the theatre for that purpoſe are ſtill viſible. The temple of Minerva at Athens is juſtly eſteemed one of the greateſt curioſities of Athens. It was built of white marble, and ſurrounded with 46 columns of the Doric Order, each of them 42 feet high, and ſeven and an half in circumference; and on its walls were repreſented the wars of the Athenians in admirable ſculpture. Throughout the city are many columns and noble remains of antiquity, which have been deſcribed at large by Dr Chandler, but which our limits will by no means allow us to enter into a particular account of. The building called the Lantern of Demoſthenes, is ſtill extant. It is a ſmall round

edifice of white marble, the roof of which is ſupported by ſix columns of the ſame materials of the Corinthian Order, and fluted; each of them nine feet and an half in height; with pannels of marble in the ſpace between the columns; the whole being covered with a cupola, carved in ſuch a manner as to reſemble ſcales, with the labours of Hercules repreſented on the frieze. The natural curioſities are but few, being only ſome caves and chaſms in the earth, of which that of Trophonius, formerly celebrated for its oracles, is one of the moſt remarkable.

Principal Cities. Conſtantinople, the ancient Byzantium, and capital of the whole Turkiſh empire, notwithſtanding all that it has ſuffered from the deſolating hands of barbarians, is ſtill deſervedly accounted one of the firſt cities in Europe. Its ſituation and excellent harbour attached Conſtantine the Great to it ſo, that he made it the capital of his empire, enlarging and beautifying it in ſuch a manner as to equal it to Rome; though in this we may reaſonably ſuppoſe that he failed; as one of the eaſtern emperors on his firſt viſit to Rome expreſſed the utmoſt marks of ſurpriſe at the grandeur of the latter. It is built in the form of a triangle, at one of the corners of which ſtands the ſeraglio; from whence there is a moſt delightful proſpect of the coaſts of Natolia. The word ſeraglio here means the whole palace of the grand ſignior, as well as that particular part where the women reſide. It is as large as one of our ordinary towns, ſurrounded with a wall 30 feet high, with battlements, embraſures, and towers, in the ancient ſtile of fortification. It was built by Mahomet II. but not in its preſent extent; for many buildings have been added by ſucceeding emperors; but the architecture is by no means anſwerable to the materials of which it is conſtructed. It is of a triangular figure like the city itſelf, about three miles in circumference, and occupies the very ſpot on which ſtood the ancient city of Byzantium. The gardens are thick ſet with evergreens, to prevent any opportunity of ſeeing the ladies as they walk in them. The palace is covered with lead, in order to diſtinguiſh it from the dwellings of private perſons; the uſe of that material being abſolutely prohibited to every ſubject in Conſtantinople. Nobody is permitted to enter the apartments of the ſeraglio; though ſome ſay they have got into the internal parts by ſtealth, and returned unhurt. M. Montague informs us, that he thus got in with a French watch-maker, whoſe ſervant he pretended to be, and who had been employed to rectify ſome fine clocks which had been preſented to the grand ſignior. The latter was at that time at Adrianople with the ladies. They were conducted by a black eunuch into the hall of the haram, which they found totally lined with China tiles, and the cieling of the cupola and reſt of the roof adorned with gold and azure. Under the cupola, in the middle of the hall, was a fountain, the baſon of which was of green marble, which he took for jaſper. All round the hall were benches, covered with rich carpets, for the ladies to ſit and take the air ſometimes, or entertain themſelves with viewing the gardens. Hence they paſſed by ſeveral little rooms, like the cells of monks or nuns, but vaſtly ſuperior in magnificence; particularly one, where there was a fine pendulum, which wanted mending. The clock ſtood upon a maſſy ſilver table, before a looking-glaſs, the frame of which was ſilver gilt, and adorned with foliages in relievo. Two high ſtands of maſſy ſilver plate were placed at each end of a rich ſofa, or low broad bench, which had a

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covering of plain green ſilk, below which appeared a very rich brocade with a gold ground, the cuſhions being of green velvet richly wrought. The bottoms of the windows were above the reach of the talleſt man, with glaſs painted, but not with the repreſentation of any living creature; this being reckoned an impiety by the Turks. On his return he was led through ſeveral fine halls, the floors of which were covered with rich Perſian carpets, and adorned with ſofas, gilded cielings, but he had no time to make particular obſervations. The gardens through which they paſſed to the ſea-ſide were well planted with cypreſſes, and other kinds of trees, but without any order. Mr Thomſon dwells particularly on the beauty of the proſpect from the ſeraglio at Conſtantinople, of which we have already given a hint. "Though all the hills in Conſtantinople, ſays he, afford a very pleaſant proſpect, yet there is none which entertains a ſpectator with ſuch peculiar delight as this firſt hill, where the ſultan lives in the midſt of eaſe and luxury, and ſeems to have arrived at the ſummit of earthly grandeur and happineſs. He has before him, whether he is walking in the gardens, or in the chambers of his palace, a full view of the Boſphorus, and both its ſhores, where his eye loſes itſelf among ſhady woods, and fields that wear a perpetual verdure. On the right hand he has a proſpect of Scutari, Chalcedon, and his fine palace and ſpacious gardens; and, turning a little more to the ſouth, he ſees the Propontis, innumerable iſlands, and the woody mountains of Aſia. At a vaſt diſtance he juſt can diſcover the top of Olympus, always covered with ſnow, or if he chooſes a ſhorter proſpect, he has before him the wonders of his own city, the church of St Sophia, and the Hippodrome. If he caſts his eyes to the left, he beholds the ſeven hills on which the city is ſeated: and, more remotely, he looks round the ſpacious plains of Romania. Add to all this, the pleaſure that muſt ariſe from the moving ſcene of ſhips continually paſſing and re-paſſing before him; ſome coming from the Black Sea, others from all parts of the Propontis, while at the ſame time, he views his harbour covered with wherries and ſmall boats, that are always coming from ſide to ſide, and ſurveys the large ſuburbs of Galata."

The city itſelf, as we have ſaid, is of a triangular figure; two ſides of it being waſhed by the ſea. Each of theſe ſides is about ſeven miles in length; but if we include all the ſuburbs, named Galata, Caſſunpacha, Pera, Topana, and Fundukli, the whole circumference will not be leſs than 30 miles. The walls are tolerably good, eſpecially towards the land-ſide, where they are double; the outer wall being about 60 feet high and the inner 20. Each of them has a flat bottomed ditch, and is flanked with a number of ſmall towers, thoſe of the higher wall anſwering exactly to thoſe of the lower. In other places they have been allowed to fall into diſrepair; but the Greek emperors were always particularly careful to keep them up, and repair the leaſt damage they ſuſtained, either from the attacks of enemies, or from accident. Some parts of them are built of free ſtone, others with rough ſtones and bricks, and the ſides next the ſea have towers projecting into the water, ſo that it is impoſſible to go round them. There are ſix gates towards the land-ſide, ſeven on the ſide of the Propontis, and eleven along the harbour; and it is remarkable, that at whatever gate we enter, we have always an aſcent before us while paſſing into the city. Notwithſtanding the magnificent appearance of Conſtantinople on the outſide, however, the expectations of a traveller are miſerably deceived when they enter it; the houſes being

very low, and for the moſt part built of wood; the ſtreets being likewiſe extremely narrow and dirty; the buildings frequently projecting in ſuch a manner, that a perſon may almoſt ſtep from one to another. From theſe circumſtances, this city is very liable to accidents by fire, which often take place either through the careleſſneſs of the inhabitants, who have a cuſtom of ſmoking tobacco in bed, or the villany of the ſoldiers, who have long been in the practice of ſetting fire to the houſes, for the ſake of plundering and pilfering in the general confuſion. In no city in the world does fire ſpread its ravages with greater celerity, and in a more fatal manner, than in Conſtantinople. It is common to hear of two or three thouſand houſes being deſtroyed at once by the flames, which it is found impoſſible to ſtop by any means but pulling down a great number of houſes, or blowing them up with gunpowder. Nay, ſometimes even this has been found inſufficient, and the fire has continued to rage till it came to ſome open place or garden. Theſe frequent accidents proved particularly fatal to the merchants, great numbers of whom were frequently ruined; but now thoſe of foreign countries have contrived to ſecure themſelves by building ſtrong warehouſes of ſtone ſtanding by themſelves, and having no more windows than ſuch as are abſolutely neceſſary; their windows and doors being beſides covered with plates of iron to reſiſt the violence of the flames.

Galata, though only a ſuburb of Conſtantinople, is a pretty large town, inhabited chiefly by Greeks, Italians, Armenians, and Jews, who live here much more at liberty than in Conſtantinople itſelf. This place had formerly the name of *Juſtiniana*, from Juſtinian the emperor, who firſt repaired and enlarged it. Soon after his death it received the name of *Galata*, but on what account is not well known; ſome deriving it from the *Galates*, or Gauls, who inhabited it, others from Gala, which ſignifies milk; the milk-women formerly having their reſidence here. Here there are taverns tolerated, where wine may be drunk, and even the Turks do not make any ſcruple of repairing to theſe places occaſionally to take a cheerful glaſs. It is ſurrounded by pretty good walls, flanked with old towers, and is by far the fineſt ſuburb of Conſtantinople; though Pera is likewiſe very well built, and the reſidence of people of condition. This ſuburb (Pera) is delightfully ſituated on a hill, from whence we have a view of the Aſiatic coaſt, the grand ſignior's ſeraglio, and part of Conſtantinople. Here the Chriſtian ambaſſadors reſide, and many foreign merchants have warehouſes as at Galata. From Pera there is a conſiderable deſcent to Topana, another ſuburb ſituated juſt at the entrance of the Boſphorus, and where they have the foundery for their cannon. Theſe are ſaid to be of a moſt exact proportion. Some travellers relate incredible things of the ſize of the Turkiſh artillery. Among others, Sir George Wheeler informs us, that he ſaw upon a platform towards the Boſphorus, cannon of ſuch a vaſt bore, that they were capable of throwing ſtones near ten feet in diameter. Mr Thomſon ſuppoſes that theſe were mortars, and that, inſtead of ten feet in diameter, it ought to be only ten in circumference, even this being wonderful enough.

The harbour of Conſtantinople is naturally one of the fineſt in the world, being about ſeven miles long, a mile broad in moſt places, with good anchorage in every part of it, and ſuch deep water, that a merchant ſhip may unlade cloſe to Galata, with ſeveral fathoms of water under her keel. Its entrance, which begins at the point of the ſeraglio,

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is ſcarcely half a mile broad; from whence it extends to the weſt like a crooked horn or bow, terminating to the north-weſt, where it receives the river *Lycus*, now called the *Barbyſes*. Here this river is divided into two branches, both of which have bridges over them in the road from Pera to Adrianople, and are of great uſe in cleanſing the harbour. From this harbour ſome ſay that Conſtantinople itſelf received the name of *the Port*, though others ſuppoſe this appellation to be derived from the principal gate of the palace.

The moſques and other public buildings of Conſtantinople are very magnificent, notwithſtanding the meanneſs of the houſes. The ſeven royal moſques particularly deſerve the attention of every ſtranger, and are generally viſited by every one upon his firſt arrival in the city. The principal one is that of St Sophia, formerly the chief Chriſtian church, which ſtands at a ſmall diſtance from the ſeraglio, and is very advantageouſly ſituated in the fineſt part of Conſtantinople, upon an eminence, with a gradual deſcent to the ſea. It is of a long ſquare form, about 100 paces in length, and 80 in breadth, but in the inſide it is round. A portico or piazza, about 36 feet in breadth, ſupported by marble pillars, extends the whole length of the front. This communicates with the body of the church by nine folding doors of braſs, the middlemoſt of which has ſome remains of Moſaic work and paintings, which are almoſt entirely defaced by the Turks. This portico is joined to another which has five brazen doors. The body of the church is almoſt covered by a cupola of admirable ſtructure, at the foot of which runs a colonade ſupporting a gallery of nine yards broad, formerly ſet apart for the women. Over this run two bulluſtrades, juſt broad enough for one perſon to paſs; which, in the time of their Ramazan, or Lent, are adorned with lamps, and make a fine appearance. The dome is 34 yards from ſide to ſide, and reſts upon four vaſt pillars, at leaſt 15 yards in circumference. It is a perfect hemiſphere, illuminated by 24 windows placed at equal diſtances from one another. In the inſide are upwards of 100 pillars of various kinds of marble, ſome of which are porphyry, and others Egyptian granite. The whole dome, and indeed all the walls, are curiouſly lined with marble, and the incruſtations of the gallery are Moſaic, generally done with ſmall glaſs cubes, which are continually looſened from their cement, but the colours are unchangeable. The Turks have added four minarets, or tall ſlender ſteeples, ſomewhat reſembling the monument in London, and terminating in ſpires with gilded creſcents on the top.

The Hippodrome is likewiſe an ancient building, ſtill appropriated to much the ſame uſes for which it was originally deſigned; as here the Turkiſh youth aſſemble, chiefly on Fridays, to exerciſe themſelves in feats of horſemanſhip. It is about 450 paces in length, and 100 in breadth; but all the fine ſtatues with which it was formerly adorned are now defaced; however, there ſtill remains a ſtately obeliſk of marble of one piece, 50 feet high, full of Egyptian hieroglyphics. At the ſouthern extremity of the Hippodrome, is another obeliſk, compoſed of ſeveral pieces, but the top is now broken off, and the reſt in a ruinous condition. Some time ago, there ſtood between the obeliſks juſt mentioned, a brazen pillar, 15 feet high, repreſenting three ſerpents twiſted ſpirally round each other, the wreaths diminiſhing gradually to the top, from whence the heads pointed out three different ways, riſing a conſiderable way from the ſhaft of the column. In the year 1700,

Sultan

Sultan Mourat is ſaid to have cauſed one of the heads to be broke off, and the whole has ſince been removed.

Adrianople, the ſecond city in the Turkiſh dominions, lies about 120 miles north weſt from Conſtantinople, and is about ſeven or eight miles in circumference, including the old city and ſome gardens. The river Maruz, the ancient Hebrus, runs to the ſouthward of the town, and is joined by two others, one of which, called the Ardah, is navigable by floats above Trajanopoli, and the ſtream formed by the union of all the three is navigable all the way down to its mouth. The moſt remarkable buildings in Adrianople are ſome moſques, covered with copper, and decorated with high and noble towers, which make a very grand appearance. Here alſo is a beautiful bazar, or exchange, half a mile long. The building is all arched, and contains a great number of ſhops. A very conſiderable trade is carried on here, as this city ſupplies all the country with goods brought by land from Conſtantinople, from Smyrna, and from other ports by ſea; and up the river they have great plenty of all kinds of proviſions. Here alſo ſilk is manufactured; and they have a ſtrong red wine, which is very well flavoured, with all kinds of fruits in great perfection.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Cuſtoms. As Turkey in Europe, though a large and extenſive empire, is only part of the Grand Signior's dominions, and the manners of the Turks are much the ſame throughout the whole, we ſhall defer giving any account of them till we have deſcribed the provinces of Turkey in Aſia.

Hiſtory. As that part of the Turkiſh empire, called, from its ſituation, Turkey in Europe, comprehends the moſt celebrated ſtates of antiquity, viz. thoſe of Greece, our limits cannot by any means allow of more than a very ſlight and general ſketch of their operations with regard to one another, and to the neighbouring nations. Anciently the country diſtinguiſhed by the name of Greece was of ſmaller extent than at preſent, being bounded on the north by Macedonia and the river Strymon; on the weſt by the Ionian Sea; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean; and on the eaſt by the Egean Sea and Archipelago. The general appellation of the inhabitants of this country in the moſt remote periods was that of *Graicoi*, or *Graioi*, from whence the name of Greece is plainly derived. Theſe names are ſuppoſed to be derived from one *Græcus*, the father, or, as ſome ſay, the ſon of Theſſalus, who gave name to Theſſaly; though others imagine that they come from *Reu* the ſon of Peleg. Be this as it will, however, theſe names were afterwards changed for *Achæi* and *Hellenes*, the derivations of which are equally obſcure and unimportant with thoſe already mentioned. They were alſo called *Pelaſgi*, from one Pelaſgus a famous chieftain, who is ſaid to have given the name of *Pelaſgia* to the whole peninſula of the Peloponneſus. Their moſt ancient name is allowed to have been that of *Jones*, ſuppoſed to be derived from Javan the ſon of Japhet; for though this name was more particularly applied to the Athenians, it is certain that it was, by other nations, given to all the inhabitants of Greece.

In the firſt ages, the Greeks appear to have been rude and barbarous, even beyond the common race of barbarians. According to their own hiſtorians, they lived indiſcriminately upon every fruit, herb, or root that lay in their way. In the night time, they either ſlept without ſhelter altogether, or took refuge in dens and caves, or hollow trees; the

ANTIENT
GREECE,
from the
BEST AUTHORITIES.
ADRIATIC
SEA
IONIAN
SEA
ILLYRIA
MACEDONIA
THESSALIA
EPIRUS
ACHAIA
ELIS
ARCADIA
LACONIA
MESSENIA
PELOPONNESUS
ITALY
CORCYRA
CEPHALONIA
Zacynthos
Cythera
Roman Miles.
50 100 150
Olympic Stades.
300 600 900 1200
British Statute Miles.
10 20 40 60 80 100 130

CŒLETICA
EUXINE or BLACK SEA
ODRYSÆ
HÆMUS MTS
MÆDICA
PROPONTIS
BITHYNIA
MYSIA
ASIA MINOR
LYDIA
CARIA
LYCIA
SPORADES
CYCLADES
CRETE
Philippopolis
Bessapara
Suemus R.
Hebrus R.
Berœa
Ostidizum
Assus
Bargus R.
Oresta or Adrianopolis
Tonzus R.
Artiscus R.
Didymotichos
Burtudizum
Trajanopolis
Iampharina
Topiri
Philippia
Maronea
Cicones
Thasos
Samothrace
Athos M.
Imbros
HELLESPONT
Myrina
LEMNOS
Tenedos
Hiera
Paparethus
Ios
Skyros
Pyra
CHIOS
Chersonesus
Andros
Tenos
Icaria
Mycone
Delos
Patmos
Paros
Lebinthos
Siphnos
Cimolis
Amorgos
Calymna
Los
Astypalæa
Anaphe
Thera
Cos
Rhodes
RHODES
Telos
Carpathos
Casos
Dia I.
Rhitymna
Ida M.
Gortyna
Assus
Hiera Pylna
Itanum Pr.
Samonium Pr.
Sacrum Pr.
Chersonesus
Aulæitichos
Thynias Pr.
Istropolis
Delta or Philea
Bizya
Byzantium
Sydnea
Bosphorus of Thrace
Perinthus
Selymbria
Apros
Ganus
Cardia
Chalcitis I.
Nicomedia
Pronectus
Nicæa
Cium
Procommesus
Cyzicus
Apamea
Artace
Lampsacus
Parium
Abydos
Dardanus
Ilium
Ida M.
Thebæ Adramyttium
Lyrnessus
Pergamus
Elæa
Cyme
Magnesia
Sardis
Smyrna
Lebedus
Colophon
Ephesus
Priene
Myus
Miletus
Myndus
Halicarnassus
Stratonicea
Ceramus
Mylasa
Caunus
Telmissus
Xanthus
Limyra
Patara
Myra
Phœnix
Talysus
Lindus
Camirus
Ialysus
Mytilene
Methymna
Melæna Pr.
Erythræ
Teos
Clazomenæ
Hermus R.
Caicus R.
Scamander R.
Simois R.
Rhœteum Pr.
Sigæum Pr.
Lectum Pr.
Cynossus
Gortyna
Pylna
Phœnicum Pr.
Criu-metopon Pr.
Sarpedon Pr.
Chelidonia Is.
Cragus M.
Olympus M.
Phœnix R.
Xanthus R.
Telmessus
Sidyma
Pinara
Cadyanda
Tlos
Limyra
Myra
Andriace
Patara
Sacrum Pr.
Chimæra
Olympus
Phaselis
Attalia
Perga
Side
Eurymedon R.
Aspendus
Sillyum
Melas R.
Pamphylia
Cestrus R.
Ephesus
Samos
Priene
Myus
Miletus
Halicarnassus
Stratonicea
Ceramus
Mylasa
Caunus
Telmissus
Cnidus
Phœnix
Talysus
Lindus
Camirus
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Lyrnessus
Pergamus
Elæa
Cyme
Magnesia
Sardis
Smyrna
Lebedus
Colophon
Ephesus
Priene
Myus
Miletus
Mynd

the country itſelf, in the mean time, remaining one continued deſart. The firſt ſtep made by them towards civilization, was the exchange of their roots and herbs for acorns, a more wholeſome kind of food; after that, they built themſelves huts to ſleep in, and covered their bodies with the ſkins of wild beaſts. For theſe improvements, it ſeems they were indebted to the Pelaſgus above mentioned, and who is ſuppoſed to be the ſame with the Peleg of ſcripture. This reformation in their way of life, however, had very little effect otherwiſe. On the contrary, having now procured ſome kind of holes to lodge in, they began to envy one another of theſe miſerable habitations, and to fight for them, as if they had been the fineſt caſtles and palaces in the world. Hence, they were ſoon under a neceſſity of ſubmitting to ſome kind of government, both in order to plunder their neighbours more ſafely than could otherwiſe be done, and to preſerve what they had got. At this time, however, they had no law but that of arms; ſo that thoſe only lived in ſafety who inhabited the moſt craggy and barren places. Hence, for a long time Greece had no ſettled inhabitants, the weakeſt being always turned out by the ſtrongeſt. According to Plutarch alſo, their gigantic ſize and ſtrength added ſo much to their cruelty, that they ſeemed to glory in committing the greateſt acts of violence and barbarity upon thoſe who fell into their hands. By degrees they began to lay aſide this extreme ſavageneſs, and to form themſelves into regular ſocieties, building towns like other nations. The remains of their former barbariſm, however, ſtill continued, and even in their moſt polite ſtate prevented them from ever becoming one people, or uniting into a community like the Romans or other powerful ſtates in the world. Hence, the great number of ſtates into which Greece was originally divided, inſomuch, that in the hiſtories of antiquity we find no fewer than 29 of theſe independent kingdoms, each governed by a prince of its own. The erection of all theſe made very little alteration in the manners of the Greeks in general. Their former wars and outrages upon one another ſtill continued; only they were now more methodized, and a military ſyſtem eſtabliſhed, by continual improvements of which, they became at laſt ſo terrible, that whatever nation they ſided with was ſure to get the victory over its enemies.

In the infancy of the Grecian ſtates, they plundered and deſtroyed each other to ſuch a degree, that Attica was almoſt the only place of ſafety in the whole country; and that only by reaſon of its ſuperior barrenneſs, ſo that the people had nothing to loſe. The maritime cities were in the moſt miſerable ſituation; being expoſed to the incurſions of bands of robbers from the land, and the depredations of pirates from the ſea; ſo that their inhabitants were conſtantly obliged to be on their guard, and to go armed. Thus the greateſt part of the land was ſuffered to be uncultivated; ſo that the people only ſowed and tilled as much as was abſolutely neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. Their continual attention to ſelf-preſervation proved an inſuperable obſtacle in the way of improvement in arts or ſciences; and hence, when the Egyptians, Jews, and other nations of the eaſt were improved in a great degree, the Greeks ſeem to have been immerſed in the deepeſt ignorance of every thing uſeful, the art of war only excepted.

It was during this ſtate of barbarity that moſt of the celebrated Grecian heroes are ſaid to have performed their exploits. Some writers are of opinion that theſe heroes never had any exiſtence; but that the accounts

counts of them have been borrowed from thoſe of ſcripture, as Gideon, Samſon, &c. and one author, viz. Mr Bryant, in his mythology, endeavours to prove that they were in reality not ſingle perſons whom the Greeks celebrated in this manner, but a colony of Cuſhites, or Babylonians, who, in the firſt ages after the flood, ſpread themſelves all over the weſtern part of the world, and every where introduced the arts and ſciences. Thus he would give us a view of ancient hiſtory entirely different from what we have been accuſtomed to receive; and which indeed he ſupports with a degree of learning and ingenuity altogether ſurpriſing. In our introduction we have mentioned that the Greeks derived their knowledge of letters from Cadmus a Phœnician; but this is utterly denied by our author, who not only affirms that this hero could not be a Phœnician, but that no ſuch perſon could exiſt. That the accounts even of the moſt authentic hiſtorians concerning this perſonage could not be true, he proves from numberleſs contradictions in their writings concerning him; and likewiſe from the immenſe variety of exploits he is ſaid to have performed, which it is altogether impoſſible could have been done by any one perſon. Leaving theſe diſputes, however, we find the Grecian hiſtory beginning to emerge from its obſcurity about the year 1184 before the Chriſtian Æra, the taking of Troy being the firſt authentic piece of hiſtory recorded concerning them. By their long ſtay in Aſia at this time, it is probable that their ferocious manners were ſomewhat civilized, and that they had got ſome taſte for the arts, as well as for the riches of Aſia. Their wars among themſelves became now ſomewhat leſs frequent, though the moſt violent animoſities frequently took place among them; and as they were almoſt all equally well ſkilled in the art of war, it was not in the power of one ſtate to ſubdue another. By the many violent wars they carried on with one another, however, the whole were at laſt weakened to ſuch a degree, that an opportunity was given to Philip of Macedon to conquer them all. That kingdom had till now been very obſcure, and looked upon as a kind of dependent upon Perſia, and never made any conſiderable figure. The Illyrians had been a moſt formidable enemy; and juſt before the acceſſion of Philip, had overcome the Macedonians in a great battle, which reduced the nation to a moſt deplorable ſtate. Philip had ſome time before been ſent into Greece for his education. At the time he went there Sparta and Thebes contended for the ſovereignty: the former firſt obtained it by conquering a diſtrict called Meſſenia, which indeed was not done without the utmoſt difficulty; but the conqueſt being once made and preſerved, undoubtedly rendered the Spartans more than a match for any of the other ſtates. Athens diſputed the matter for a long time; but the fatal termination of the Peloponneſian war, when Athens itſelf was taken by Lyſander the Lacedemonian general, finally decided the diſpute as to that ſtate. A new enemy, however, appeared, and that from a quarter not at all expected. The Thebans had always been looked upon as the moſt degenerate people in Greece; and ſuch was the mean opinion which the reſt had of their intellectual faculties, that it was a common proverb to ſay any one was as ſtupid as a Theban, when they wiſhed to affront him. At laſt there appeared two great men in Thebes, whoſe capacity for military affairs ſeemed to make amends for the ſtupidity of all their countrymen. Theſe were Pelopidas and Epaminondas; and by the efforts of theſe two, the Thebans were enabled not only to keep up the ſame rank with the other ſtates, but

even to overcome the Spartans themſelves. It was to the care of theſe two heroes that Philip of Macedon was committed, and by their inſtructions he profited ſo well, and gained ſuch knowledge of the character of the Greeks in general, that he found means at laſt to ſubdue them all, as has already been obſerved. This was facilitated by the death of Pelopidas and Epaminondas ſome time before his acceſſion to the crown, ſo that there was ſcarce a general in Greece that could cope with him. We have already given a ſhort account of his exploits, and thoſe of his ſon Alexander, in our introduction. The news of Alexander's death were in the higheſt degree pleaſing to the Greek ſtates, who imagined that now they ſhould have an opportunity of regaining their liberties; but the animoſities which had ſo long prevailed among them ſtill continued, and prevented them from ever joining in any ſolid plan for the recovery of thoſe liberties they ſeemed to value ſo much. Hence they continued to be oppreſſed by Alexander's ſucceſſors, or by other tyrants, till about 268 B. C. Aratus an Achæan formed a deſign of ſetting his country free from theſe oppreſſors. With this view he prevailed upon a number of the petty ſtates, of which Greece was compoſed, to enter into a league for their mutual defence. This was called the *Achæan league*; and though the republics ſingly had but little ſtrength, they became very formidable when united. At laſt they received ſuch a ſevere check from Cleomenes king of Sparta, that they were obliged to call in Antigonus to their aſſiſtance. By him Cleomenes was overcome, and Sparta itſelf taken; but thus they brought upon themſelves a more powerful enemy than Cleomenes could have been. The recovery of the Grecian liberties was therefore incomplete; and in a ſhort time they began to feel the weight of a power more formidable than any that had yet been experienced, viz. that of the Romans. That inſidious and haughty people firſt found a pretence of intermeddling with the affairs of the Greeks, in order to ſet them free from the Macedonian tyrants. On this pretence they conquered the kingdom of Macedon, though not without conſiderable difficulty, and had the king (who at that time was called Philip, but had few of the abilities of the father of Alexander) acted wiſely, they could not have conquered him at all. This prince had been ſolicited by Hannibal, while in the height of his proſperity, to ſend an army into Italy, which he might have eaſily done; and had he done ſo at that time, the republic of Rome could in all probability have been overturned. By loſing the opportunity, however, the Romans were enabled to attack him in his own dominions; and the Macedonians, not being commanded by ſuch able generals, were overcome. On this the Romans declared all the Greek cities free; and the infatuated Greeks received this with the utmoſt joy, not perceiving that they had only changed their maſters, and that thoſe who could give liberty could alſo take it away at their pleaſure. The Macedonians ſtill continued to make reſiſtance; but Perſeus, the ſucceſſor of Philip, imprudently renewed the war, without the neceſſary precautions in engaging ſuch a formidable enemy, and indeed without any abilities to carry it on. In conſequence of this he loſt a battle, and with it his kingdom and life. Macedonia was ſoon after reduced to a Roman province; while the unhappy prince, after having been led in triumph by his haughty conqueror, was thrown into a dungeon, where he periſhed miſerably. The Greeks now were left entirely at the mercy of the Romans; and as they had ſtill the imprudence to imagine themſelves at liberty, and act as if

they had been ſo, they were at laſt entirely deprived even of that ſhadow of liberty which they had been allowed to poſſeſs. In the year 146 B. C. Corinth, one of the firſt cities in Greece, was taken and burnt by a Roman conſul named Mummius, who, notwithſtanding his ſkill in war, appears from his treatment of the fine ornaments of that city, to have been as ſtupid a barbarian as ever exiſted. The inhabitants had all fled out of the town at his approach; but having concealed great treaſures in their houſes, the fire, when the city was burnt, melting all different kinds of metals together, is ſaid to have produced a kind of new one called *Corinthian braſs*, which was held by the ancients in the higheſt eſtimation.

Thus the liberties of the Greeks were entirely at an end; and, when we conſider the way in which they had treated one another, from the time of their firſt ſettlement in the country, we can ſcarce look upon their ſubjection to the Romans to have been any misfortune. Thus indeed, they were obliged to live in peace, and it is remarkable, that the countries of Greece and Aſia Minor, where the greateſt poſſible outrages had for ſo long been carried on, ſhould at laſt become the ſeat of the goſpel of peace, and be the places from whence the knowledge of it ſhould be principally diffuſed among other nations. For a long time they continued quietly ſubject to their new maſters, and excepting ſome ſeditions which took place at Athens, and for which the citizens were ſeverely puniſhed by Sylla, we hear no accounts of any attempt to ſhake off the Roman yoke. In the year 330, Conſtantine the Great enlarged and beautified the city of Byzantium, changing the name of it to Conſtantinople, removing the imperial ſeat thither, and equalling it to Rome. This removal is ſuppoſed to have been a ſpecial cauſe of the decline of the weſtern part of the empire, which was now left expoſed to the incurſions of the barbarians, without a ſufficient number of troops to defend it. Our limits will not allow us to give any particular detail of the affairs of this empire, farther than to obſerve, that the civil contentions which took place in it, contributed no leſs than the ravages of barbarians to bring it to an end. The Perſians, who were now the great enemies of the Roman name, continued to make moſt violent incurſions, until at laſt the emperor Julian, ſurnamed the *Apoſtate*, on account of his having renounced the Chriſtian religion, which he had once embraced, reſolved to march in perſon againſt them. Before he ſet out on this expedition, however, he enriched the city of Conſtantinople with many valuable gifts. He formed a large harbour to ſhelter the ſhips from the ſouth wind, built a magnificent porch leading to it, and in another a ſtately library, where he lodged all his books. He then ſet out from Antioch in the year 363, from which he never returned; being killed in an attack made by the enemy, into whoſe country he had imprudently ventured too far. After the death of Jovian, who ſucceeded Julian, the empire was divided into two parts; one of the emperors, making Rome, and the other Conſtantinople the place of his reſidence. The firſt who ſhared the empire thus between them, were Valentinian and Valens, of whom the latter had the eaſtern part; but being invaded by the Goths, he was at laſt defeated and killed by them, by which misfortune the whole empire fell again into the hands of a ſingle perſon. This was Gratian, who had been declared emperor of the weſt, after the death of Valentinian. In a ſhort time, however, he was obliged by the troubles of the times to take Theodoſius in partneriſhip with

with him, and after his death the two empires were never united under any ſingle ſovereign. A few years before the total failure of the Weſtern empire, the fine library erected by Julian was conſumed by fire, which alſo deſtroyed a great part of the city. On this occaſion, no fewer than 120,000 volumes were deſtroyed, and among theſe the works of Homer, ſaid to be written on the great gut of a dragon 120 feet long.

The deſtruction of the weſtern part of the empire did not immediately affect that of Conſtantinople, though indeed, through the degeneracy of the Romans at this period, and the civil contentions which continually prevailed, it is not improbable but this too muſt have ſunk in a very ſhort time, had not their martial ſpirit been revived under the government of the emperors Juſtin or Juſtinian. The latter ſubdued the Goths in Italy, and the Vandals in Africa; but was never able thoroughly to repreſs the incurſions of the Perſians, with whom he maintained long and bloody wars. He was obliged alſo to conſent to pay an annual tribute to the Huns; but it was on condition that they ſhould defend the empire againſt all other barbarians, a condition which was very ill kept on their part.

After the death of Juſtinian, which happened in 566, the Conſtantinopolitan empire quickly declined; the greateſt part of Italy was conquered by the Lombards, and though the loſs was in ſome meaſure made up by the acquiſition of Perſarmenia, (a province in Aſia, whoſe inhabitants revolted from the Perſians) yet this was by no means a compenſation for what followed. The Perſians inſtantly commenced a war for the recovery of this province, and the Romans were no leſs ſtrenuous in defending their new conqueſt. Thus both empires were weakened to ſuch a degree, that at laſt the Perſian monarchy was totally overthrown by the Saracens, who did not fail immediately after to fall upon the Romans. Their firſt attack was made in the year 632; the Romans were defeated in every engagement, and the barbarians purſued their conqueſts with incredible rapidity. In four years they conquered all Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt; and by the year 648, they were maſters of Africa, Phœnicia, Meſopotamia, Cyprus, Aradus, and Rhodes; after which, having defeated the Imperial fleet commanded by the emperor in perſon, a peace was concluded, on condition that the Saracens ſhould keep all the vaſt territory they had acquired, paying for it only 1000 pieces of ſilver annually. In 671 they renewed their ravages, but with worſe ſucceſs than formerly; ſo that their tribute was now augmented to 3000 pounds weight of gold, 50 ſlaves, and as many fine horſes.

The empire had ſcarce got free of this formidable enemy, when another ſtarted up. Theſe were the Bulgarians, who now broke into Thrace, and for a long time continued to be troubleſome; frequently defeating the Imperial armies, and once cutting off the emperor himſelf with all his forces. They were ſubdued in 979, by Baſilius II. with circumſtances of ſuch cruelty, as one would think could ſcarce have entered into the head of any human creature. Baſilius having overthrown his enemies in a great battle, and taken an incredible number of captives, reſolved to ſend them home in ſuch a manner as ſhould for ever incapacitate them either from hurting him or being uſeful to their own country. For this purpoſe he cauſed their eyes to be pulled out, leaving to every hundred only a guide with a ſingle eye, to conduct them home. This ſhocking ſight ſo affected their king, that he died in two days after the miſerable captives returned, and Baſilius purſuing his good fortune, reduced the whole country in a ſhort tme.

By this cruel conqueſt, the empire was indeed freed from the Bulgarians, but not from others much more difficult to be reſiſted. The Saracens had all this time continued their incurſions, though now rendered leſs formidable than before, by reaſon of the continual diviſions which took place among them; but, in 1041, a new and unknown enemy invaded the Roman territories, who continued to gain ground almoſt continually, without the leaſt poſſibility of giving them a check. Theſe were the Turks, who had now found an opportunity of becoming a people of ſome conſequence, by reaſon of the inteſtine wars among the Saracens. The firſt attack upon the Romans was in Media, under the the conduct of one *Cutlu Moſes*, nephew to Tangrolipix the ſultan. This prince, having been defeated by the Saracens, was obliged to fly towards Media, where he was again oppoſed by a Roman governor named Stephen, ſo that there was a neceſſity of fighting his army before he could proceed. In this engagement, however, he ſucceeded better than with the Saracens; for he gave the Romans an entire defeat, taking Stephen himſelf priſoner, and afterwards ſelling him for a ſlave. On his return he adviſed his uncle Tangrolipix to turn his arms againſt the Romans, but the latter thought proper firſt to try his fortune againſt the Saracens, though with no better fortune than his nephew, being by them entirely defeated, and obliged to renounce all thoughts of conqueſt on that ſide. After this diſaſter, reflecting on what his nephew had told him concerning the effeminacy of the Romans, he ſent his ſon Aſan, with an army of 20,000 men, to reduce Media; but, after having committed dreadful ravages, this prince was drawn into an ambuſh, and cut off with all his men. Tangrolipix next invaded the country with an army of near 100,000, who after having committed the greateſt ravages without any oppoſition, laid ſiege to Artza, the moſt commercial and wealthy city in theſe parts. This he ſet fire to, and in a ſhort time utterly deſtroyed it, no fewer than 150,000 of the inhabitants periſhing in the flames. This was followed by a deſperate engagement between the Turks and Romans, in which the latter ſeemed to have got the better; though in a ſhort time after, both ſides weary of ſuch a deſtructive war, were glad to come to an accommodation. This was not long obſerved; for Tangrolipix, inſolent with the ſucceſs he had met with, would be ſatisfied with nothing leſs than the ſubmiſſion of the emperor himſelf; for making which demand, his ambaſſadors were driven out of Conſtantinople. The war at this time, however, was not productive of any remarkable event, nor did Tangrolipix as yet get any footing in the empire; but under the emperor Romanus Diogenes, the Turks, having encreaſed in power, though defeated in three battles by that emperor, had at laſt the good fortune to deſtroy almoſt the whole Roman army, and take the emperor himſelf priſoner. The Turkiſh ſultan uſed his victory with great moderation, and entered into a ſtrict alliance with Romanus, but ſoon after hearing that the latter had been treacherouſly murdered, he invaded the Roman dominions, not with a view to predatory incurſions as formerly, but to conquer, and keep what he could get. In this he proved very ſucceſsful; and before the year 1077, made himſelf maſter of all Media, Lycaonia, Cappadocia, and Bithynia, fixing his capital in the city of Nice in Bithynia; and during all theſe conqueſts, neither the emperor nor his ſubjects ſeem to have taken the leaſt notice of their progreſs. This year, however, the emperor Alexius Commenus made

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ſuch vigorous preparations for war, that the Turks were intimidated, and made propoſals of peace.

The invaſion of the Turks was ſucceeded by that of Robert Guiſcard, duke of Puglia and Calabria, and this by an invaſion of the Scythians, who paſſing the Danube, laid waſte part of Thrace, committing every where the greateſt barbarities. Againſt them the emperor diſpatched two generals, who diſagreeing betwixt themſelves, were cut off by the barbarians with all their forces. Their ſucceſſor, Talicius, had better ſucceſs, and deſtroyed great numbers of the barbarians; but next ſpring they returned in ſuch numbers, that the emperor marched againſt them in perſon; but, having ventured a battle at an improper time, he was utterly defeated, with the loſs of his whole army; he himſelf making his eſcape with the utmoſt difficulty. In an attempt againſt theſe barbarians made next year, he was attended with no better ſucceſs; but the year following, 1084, he retrieved his credit, and gave the Scythians ſuch an overthrow, that very few remained to carry the news of their diſaſter. However, they invaded the empire again in 1093; but were ſo completely defeated, that they never could attempt any invaſion afterwards.

All this time, wars had been occaſionally carried on with the Turks with various ſucceſs; though upon the whole theſe barbarians had continued to gain ground; but now ſuch a formidable aſſociation was formed among the weſtern princes, as ſeemed to threaten them with entire deſtruction. This aſſociation was formed upon religious principles, with a deſign to recover the Holy Land out of the hands of the Infidels; and had the eaſtern emperors properly concurred in the undertaking, an end would probably have been put, not only to the conqueſts, but the exiſtence of the Turks as a nation. Inſtead of this, however, they behaved in ſuch a manner, that the Latins, or Cruſaders, looked upon them to be no leſs enemies than the Turks; and, indeed, whatever places they took from theſe barbarians, were not reſtored to the emperors to whom they originally belonged, but formed into a number of ſmall independent principalities, which having no ſtrength to reſiſt ſingly, nor unanimity to join for mutual defence, fell one after another into the hands of the barbarians from whom they were taken. So far indeed were the emperors from giving any aſſiſtance to the Cruſaders in theſe expeditions, that a war enſued, in which the latter took the city of Conſtantinople itſelf, reſolving to ſeize the whole empire for themſelves. But in this they were not attended with much ſucceſs; being very ſoon driven out, and the former line of emperors reſtored. By theſe diſſenſions the Turks had an opportunity of continuing their encroachments on the empire without any moleſtation; ſo that towards the end of the 13th century, they had made themſelves maſters of almoſt all Aſia Minor, as well as moſt of the iſlands in the Mediterranean; and being at the ſame time maſters at ſea, they infeſted the coaſts of the empire, and threatened to put an end to all communication in that way between one place and another. In 1292 they firſt made their appearance in Europe; but after having loaded themſelves with booty, they offered to depart quietly, provided they were allowed ſhips to tranſport them, which the emperor very readily agreed to, in order to get rid of ſuch troubleſome gueſts. But the Greek officers, unwilling to ſuffer ſuch an immenſe plunder to be carried away, formed a deſign of cutting them all off at once. This, however, was not done with

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ſuch ſecrecy, but that the Turks had intelligence of it, and therefore prepared for their defence. They firſt ſurpriſed a ſtrong caſtle in the neighbourhood, and then found means to convey intelligence to their Aſiatic brethren of the ſituation they were in; on which the latter poured in to their aſſiſtance in ſuch numbers, that the whole country was overrun by them, to the very gates of Conſtantinople. At laſt the emperor marched againſt them in perſon; but through negligence of diſcipline in his army was utterly defeated, and his camp taken, after which, the Turks continued to ravage the country in a terrible manner; but at laſt, being defeated and ſhut up in the Cherſoneſus, they were all cut to pieces or taken, and the empire thus delivered from ſuch a dangerous enemy, who threatened it with total deſtruction.

By this and ſome other checks, the conqueſts of the Turks were not only retarded, but the emperors found means to recover ſome provinces out of their hands, which, however, they were not able to keep. By the year 1357, theſe barbarians, taking advantage of the continual diſſenſions which reigned in the empire, had reduced all Aſia, after which, they paſſed the Helleſpont; and under the conduct of their Sultan Amurath, reduced all Thrace, making Adrianople the ſeat of their empire. Bajazet, the ſon and ſucceſſor of Amurath, greatly enlarged the dominions of his predeceſſors, reducing the countries of Peloponneſus, Theſſaly, Macedon, Phocis, Myſia, and Bulgaria, driving out the petty princes who had ſettled themſelves in theſe parts. He next turned his arms againſt the emperor, whom he looked upon as his vaſſal, and to whom little more belonged than the city of Conſtantinople, with the adjoining diſtrict. The emperor Manuel, unable to reſiſt ſuch a formidable enemy, applied to the weſtern princes, who furniſhed an army of 130,000 men, under the command of Sigiſmund, king of Hungary, and John, count of Nevers. This vaſt multitude, however, were entirely defeated, after which, Bajazet, to ſave himſelf the trouble of a long and laborious ſiege, entered into a negociation with John, the elder brother of Manuel, to whom he promiſed the ſovereignty, provided he would yield him up the city, and retire with his people to Peloponneſus, which diſtrict he promiſed to allow him to poſſeſs in quiet. With this condition John readily complied, and his faction prevailing in the city, he was raiſed to the empire; but when he came to inform the citizens of the conditions he had agreed to, they utterly refuſed to comply with them. The ſiege was therefore commenced with great fury by Bajazet, and would undoubtedly have been taken, had not the Turkiſh ſultan received intelligence that Tamerlane the Tartar, after having overrun all the eaſt with incredible celerity, was now ready to turn his arms againſt him, and to break into Syria. On this he raiſed the ſiege, and marched eaſtward to meet his antagoniſt. The two armies met in the plains of Angora, where Bajazet was entirely defeated, and moſt of his men cut in pieces, Tamerlane being all the while ſo unconcerned, that he remained in his tent playing at cheſs, and only coming out now and then to look at the battle. Bajazet was taken priſoner, but the accounts of his treatment by the conqueror are various; ſome authors informing us that he was ſhut up in an iron cage; while others ſay that he was treated with the greateſt kindneſs. It is certain, however, that he was never reſtored to his throne, and by this diſaſter the power of the Turks was broken in ſuch a manner, that had the weſtern princes interpoſed in favour of the emperor, the remains of the Conſtantinopolitan dominions

nions might have been ſaved, and the barbarians prevented from making themſelves maſters of the city. This, however, was not done. The Turks were allowed to recruit their ſtrength, and in 1424 Conſtantinople was again beſieged by Amurath II. The inhabitants made a reſolute defence, but would undoubtedly have been obliged to ſubmit at laſt, had not the emperor found means to countenance a pretender to the Turkiſh throne, by which manœuvre the Sultan was obliged to raiſe the ſiege. Having got the better of his competitor, he turned his arms weſtward, broke into Hungary, and beſieged the city of Belgrade, but was repulſed with the loſs of 15,000 men. In his retreat he was attacked by John Hunniades, vaivode of Tranſylvania, who cut great numbers of his men in pieces, and obliged the reſt to fly with precipitation. Soon after this he gained another more complete victory in the plains of Tranſylvania; deſtroying 20,000 of the enemy, with the loſs of only 3000 of his own men. He gained ſeveral other remarkable victories, but was at laſt defeated in 1448 in the battle of Varna, which put an end to all hopes of ſaving Conſtantinople. The emperor was now obliged to pay a tribute of 300,000 aſpers annually to the ſultan, and give up ſome forts which he ſtill held on the Euxine Sea; but, as he knew very well that the ſultan would renew his attempts of becoming maſter of the city whenever a proper opportunity offered, he attempted to conciliate the favour of the weſtern princes by uniting the Greek and Latin churches, a ſcheme which had frequently been tried before, and never failed to be productive of great diſturbances, as it was at this time, notwithſtanding the deſperate ſituation of the affairs of the people.

Neither the emperor nor ſultan however, lived to ſee the final cataſtrophe of Conſtantinople. The Greek emperor, John Palæologus, died in 1448, and Amurath two years after. Mohammed, the ſucceſſor of Amurath, pretended at firſt to be a great friend to Conſtantine Palæologus the new emperor; but no ſooner had he finiſhed a war in which he was engaged, than he built two forts, one on each ſide the Thracian Boſphorus, by which the city was in a manner blocked up, while the garriſon of that on the European ſide made daily excurſions, ravaging the country all the way to the gates of Conſtantinople. This naturally brought on a war, which indeed commenced with the ſiege of the city; for the emperor was now in no condition to ſend troops into the field; and even the defence of the city with only 9000 regular troops (for the garriſon conſiſted of no more) againſt an army of 400,000 men, was not only raſh, but unjuſtifiable in the higheſt degree, as expoſing the innocent inhabitants to certain deſtruction and ſlaughter, after all power of reſiſtance ſhould be loſt on their part. Conſtantine, however, obſtinately perſiſted in his reſiſtance, notwithſtanding the repeated offers of the ſultan of his life, liberty, and poſſeſſion of a diſtrict in ſome other part of the country. In this ſituation he made incredible efforts, and renewed the walls as faſt as they were battered down by the enemy. For ſome time they were ſecured from an attack on the ſide of the ſea by being in poſſeſſion of the harbour, the mouth of which was ſecured by a chain which the Turks could not break. Mohammed, therefore, finding that he could make no progreſs without being in poſſeſſion of the harbour, conveyed 80 gallies by land into it, by means of certain machines conſtructed by a renegado. Conſtantine terrified by the execution of this project, which expoſed the city to an attack both by ſea and land, now ſent an embaſſy, offering to become his vaſſal, and to pay him ſuch tribute annually

annually as he ſhould think proper, provided he would raiſe the ſiege and withdraw his forces. But to this it was replied, that the ſultan had determined to become maſter of the city at all events; but if the emperor delivered it up immediately, he would yield up to him Peloponneſus, and ſome other provinces to his brothers, which they ſhould enjoy as his friends and allies; but if they held out to the laſt extremity, he would put him and the whole nobility to the ſword, abandon the city to be plundered by his ſoldiers, and carry the inhabitants into captivity. This condition, which certainly was a very advantageous one, as matters then ſtood, was obſtinately rejected by the emperor, as was likewiſe the laſt offer made by the ſultan of his life and liberty before a general aſſault was given. The attack was dreadful, and the event may eaſily be imagined. The garriſon did all that could be expected from men animated by deſpair, and made a vaſt ſlaughter of their enemies, which ſerved only the more to provoke thoſe who remained. At laſt, overpowered and oppreſſed with numbers, the emperor himſelf, with all the principal nobility, were killed; the Turks broke into the city on all ſides, and for three days were allowed to pillage and maſſacre as they pleaſed; a privilege they did not fail to make good uſe of, ſo that the city was not only completely rifled, but the inhabitants almoſt exterminated. On the fourth day, however, the ſultan commanded all his ſoldiers to abſtain from further hoſtilities on pain of death. Next day he made his triumphal entry into the city, and invited back ſuch of the inhabitants as had fled into the neighbouring countries, fixing his reſidence in Conſtantinople, which has ever ſince continued the capital of the Turkiſh empire.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE.

THESE formerly were all celebrated in hiſtory, being ſubject to the Greeks, and remarkable either for the exploits of heroes, or the reſidence of their deities, but are now in general in a miſerable ſituation; and it has been remarked, by modern travellers, that they are almoſt all volcanic. The moſt remarkable of them are,

1. NEGROPONT, the ancient Euboea, ſeparated from the continent only by a very narrow ſtrait, called the *Euripus*, and which we have already deſcribed. Anciently it was a place of much conſequence to the Greeks on account of its vicinity to the continent, as the poſſeſſor of it could eaſily tranſport his forces over the Euripus, and thus keep thoſe on the other ſide continually in awe. Hence it was called by Philip of Macedon the *Fetters of Greece;* and he ſpent much time and trouble in attempting to become maſter of it. It joins to the coaſt of Achaia, or Livadia, and is about 90 miles long, and between 20 and 40 in breadth. It is very fertile in corn, wine, and fruit, producing alſo cattle in abundance, ſo that all kind of proviſions are extremely cheap here. It has

two

A MAP of the Travels and Voyages of
St. PAUL,
And of the other Places that are mention'd in the Books of the New Testament that follow y.e Gospels Together with such Places that ly Remote from y.e Holy Land as are mentioned in the New Testament
10
15
Deg East from London
23
30
45
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35
30
15
20
25
ITALY
Illyricum
DALMATIA
Rome
The three Taverns
Appii forum
Puteoli
MACEDONIA
Apolonia
Thessalonica
Amphipolis
Philippi
Neapolis
Samothracia I.
Troas
MYSIA
Asses
Mitylene
Adramyttium
Pergamus
Thyatira
ASIA
Smyrna
Ephesus
Miletus
Rhodus
Coos
Samos I.
Patmos I.
Crete I
Salmone Prom.
Fair Haven
Phœnice
Claudia I.
Syracuse
Melita I.
ADRIA or
The ADRIATICK SEA
Voyage
Track of St. Paul's
Cyrene
Alexandria
PART OF LYBIA
Berda
Greece or Achaia
Athens
Corinth
Cenchrea
Regium
0 60 120 180 240 300
British Miles

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35
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ospels
m y^e Holy
ament
Mound Sion or the Lower City
Bezetha or the New City
Gardens
Gethsemane
Brook
Mount Olives
The Port
Mt Calvary
The Temple
The valley of Hinnom
Cedron
Bethphage
Bethany
Mt Gihon
The Upper City
The Upper Market
P. Siloam
The Antient City of JERUSALEM
PONTUS
BITHYNIA
PHRYGIA
GALATIA
CAPPA-
DOCIA
ASIA
LYCIA
CILICIA
Selaucia
Antioch
MEDIA
Ninive
PARTHIA
Charran
Mesopo
tamia
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
CYPRUS
Paphos
Salamis
Rhodus
SYRIA
Damascus
Phoenicia
Sidon
Tyre
Ptolemais
Cesarea
Joppa
Lydda
Azotus
Gaza
Antipatris
Jerusalem
Babylon
ELAM or
PERSIA
CHALDÆA
ARABIA
Alexandria
EGYPT
Sinai Mount
RED SEA
Land of
Median
ÆTHIOPIA
R. Paison
PERSIAN
GULF

two conſiderable towns, the one called Negropont, the other Caſtel Roſſo.

2. TENEDOS lies oppoſite to the coaſt of Troy, on which account it is mentioned by the poets. Virgil informs us that it was the ſtation to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a ſtate of ſecurity, who thought they had been gone off altogether. It has a tower called alſo Tenedos.

3. LEMNOS, which lies on the northern part of the Ægean Sea, is almoſt of a ſquare figure, and about 25 miles each way. It produces oil and wine, but the principal revenue is derived from a kind of earth, called from the place where it is found, Terra Lemnia, or *Terra Sigillata*, ſealed earth, from its being ſealed up in parcels. It is bought by the Turks as a valuable medicine, and as ſuch, had even a reputation in our own country till lately, though in truth is is very inſignificant.

4. SCYROS contains many valuable remains of antiquity, but is very thinly inhabited. It is about 60 miles in circumference.

5. LESBOS, or Mytilene, was formerly noted for the prodigality of its inhabitants, and is about 60 miles in length. It is famous for having produced a number of poets and philoſophers.

6. SCIO, or Chios, is of conſiderable magnitude, being not leſs than 100 miles in circumference, and has upwards of 100,000 inhabitants, being garriſoned by about 1400 Turks. Being a mountainous country, it produces no corn, but abundance of oil, wine, and ſilk, which laſt is manufactured into velvets, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Here is alſo the tree which produces the gum maſtic, ſometimes uſed in medicine, but more for varniſhes, &c. This iſland, and indeed all the other Greek iſlands, have been celebrated for the beauty of the women, which is particularly taken notice of by Dr Chandler, though Lady Craven, who viſited ſome of them, does not ſpeak of this in any high terms, and deſcribes their ornaments as fantaſtic and ridiculous to the laſt degree, being moreover very troubleſome to adjuſt, as ſhe was obliged to wait *four hours* to allow one time to dreſs herſelf. The iſland of Chios is famous for being the birth place of Homer, and a ſmall ſquare houſe, called *Homer's School*, is ſhewn there to this day.

7. PATMOS, remarkable for being the place where the Revelation was completed by the viſion of John the apoſtle, is only a barren rock about 20 miles in circumference. It is inhabited by a few monks, who ſhew a cave where John is ſaid to have written the apocalypſe.

8. SAMOS lies on the coaſt of Natolia, about ſeven miles from the continent, oppoſite to Epheſus, and is about 30 miles long, and 15 broad. The iſland produces oil, ſilk, and wine, which laſt is greatly eſteemed. There is alſo a good breed of ſheep, from which a conſiderable quantity of wool is obtained. This iſland is ſaid to have been the native country of Juno, and there are ſtill the remains of her temple, which, with thoſe of the ancient city of Samos, are ſaid to be the fineſt in antiquity.

9. The iſland of RHODES is greatly celebrated both in ancient and modern hiſtory; in the former on account of the valour of the inhabitants, and their ſkill in maritime affairs; and in the latter on account of the defence made by the knights of St John againſt the Turks in 1522. Formerly it was alſo celebrated on account of an enormous ſtatue of braſs, deſigned for an image of the ſun. It ſtood at the entrance of the harbour, having a foot on each ſide, and the height was ſuch, that

the largeſt ſhips might paſs between its legs without any impediment from their maſts. The whole height was about 135 feet, and in one of its hands it held a light-houſe for the direction of mariners. It was framed by one Chares, who ſpent 12 years in bringing it to perfection; but, after it was reared, an earthquake threw it down before it ſtood many years, and it was never afterwards ſet up; however it continued entire till the time of the Saracens, when it was broken in pieces by theſe barbarians, who loaded 900 camels with the braſs.

This iſland is ſituated in north latitude 36-oc, eaſt longitude 28°, about 10 miles diſtant from the coaſt of Natolia; being 60 miles long, and between 20 and 30 in breadth. The air is pleaſant and healthful, and the ſoil fruitful, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life excepting corn, which is imported from the neighbouring continent. It has a town called alſo Rhodes, about three miles in circumference, which ſtands on the ſide of a hill fronting the ſea, and which makes a tolerable good appearance. The harbour is the Grand Signior's principal place for ſhipping, and the town is looked upon to be very ſtrong. After loſing Paleſtine in 1308, the knights of St John of Jeruſalem took this iſland from the Turks, from whence they took the name of the Knights of Rhodes; but in 1522, through the conteſts of the kings of France and Spain, the barbarians were ſuffered to overpower them, after which, Charles V. beſtowed upon them the iſland of Malta, where they have ever ſince remained.

10. The iſland of SANTORINI, or Santoria, is plainly of volcanic origin, being almoſt covered with pumice ſtones, though by the induſtry of the inhabitants it produces ſome barley and wine. Anciently this iſland was called Caliſta and Thera. It is one of the moſt ſoutherly iſlands in the Archipelago. One third of the inhabitants are of the Catholic religion, and under the care of a Popiſh biſhop. There is another iſland of the ſame name near this, which aroſe out of the ſea in the year 1707. Its riſe was attended with earthquakes, thunders, lightnings, and violent volcanic eruptions; and it continued to burn for ſome time after it aroſe; but theſe eruptions have now ceaſed, though it is not yet inhabited. It is raiſed about 200 feet above the ſea, and its circumference at its firſt riſing was about five miles, but it has ſince increaſed.

11. PAROS contains many admirable remains of antiquity, and is celebrated on account of its marble, accounted the fineſt in the world.

12. CYTHEREA, formerly celebrated for being the favourite reſidence of Venus, is now of very little account. Its modern name is *Cerigo*.

13. CRETE, now Candia, is an iſland of conſiderable extent; lying between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, and being not leſs than 200 miles long and 60 broad, and is almoſt equally diſtant from the continent of Europe, Aſia, and Africa. It is famous for having in it the river Lethe, the water of oblivion, and Mount Ida, the place of conteſt of the three female goddeſſes. This mountain is now little better than a barren rock, though there are many fertile vallies producing wine, corn, and fruits of the moſt excellent kinds. Anciently it was celebrated for its hundred cities, for being the birth blace of Jupiter, the kingdom of Minos, and the exploits of Idomeneus who aſſiſted at the Trojan war, are recorded by Homer. In modern times it is celebrated for the ſiege of its capital, Candia, by the Turks. This was much

more

more remarkable, both for its length and the number of thoſe who periſhed at it, than the ſiege of Troy. It was defended by the Venetians, who held out from the beginning of the year 1645, to the end of September 1669; during which time, the garriſon ſuſtained 56 aſſaults, all of which they repelled, and at laſt capitulated upon honourable terms, after having loſt 80,000 men, while their adverſaries loſt 180,000.

14. CYPRUS is the largeſt of all the iſlands in theſe parts, being 150 miles long, and 70 in breadth, being only 20 miles diſtant from the coaſts of Syria and Paleſtine, and about an equal diſtance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly celebrated for the worſhip paid by the inhabitants to Venus; and according to the accounts of modern travellers, the preſent race are no leſs devotees to that goddeſs than their predeceſſors. It produces abundance of grapes, from which a great quantity of wine of excellent quality is prepared; the cotton and turpentine trees are alſo met with here, and oil and ſilk are cultivated. Here alſo is a mountain named Olympus, and the wine produced about the foot of it is the moſt eſteemed. This iſland was anciently governed by its own kings, and though it paſſed into the hands of the Perſians, Greeks, and Romans, the inhabitants ſtill recovered their independence. In the time of the Cruſades, the iſland was reduced by Richard I. of England, who beſtowed the royal title on Guy de Luſignan king of Jeruſalem. From him it paſſed to the Venetians, who ſtill hold it; but the Turks are the only poſſeſſors, who oppreſs the inhabitants to ſuch a degree, that they draw little more than L. 1000 revenue from the whole. Its ancient capital, Famaguſto, has a good harbour, and ſeveral European nations have conſuls reſiding here. The modern capital is Nicoſia, which ſtands in the middle of the iſland.

15. DELOS is only ſix miles in circumference, though greatly celebrated in antiquity, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana. It has now ſcarce any inhabitants, but there are magnificent ruins of the temples formerly belonging to theſe deities. The iſlands called Cyclades, lie round Delos in a circle.

16. There are many iſlands in the Ionian Sea, among which, is the celebrated Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulyſſes. It is now called *Iſole del Compere*, and is a place of no conſideration. The others, Zante, Cephalonia, Santamaura, Corfu, Fannu, Sapienza, Stivalti, &c.

16. ZANTE is a place of conſiderable trade, and contains about 30,000 inhabitants. It has a citadel garriſoned with about 500 men, but the fortifications are in a very ruinous ſituation.

18. CORFU is about 70 miles long, and 30 broad in ſome places, though in others not above twelve. The ſouthern parts are barren, mountainous, and very ill provided with water; but the northern coaſts abound with all kinds of excellent fruit, grapes, olives, &c. It has a city of the ſame name, whoſe circumference is about four miles, and is a place of conſiderable ſtrength, being the reſidence of the governor-general over all the other iſlands in theſe parts. Theſe iſlands belong to the Venetians, but they are ſaid to concern themſelves ſo little with the government, that the inhabitants bear a very indifferent character.

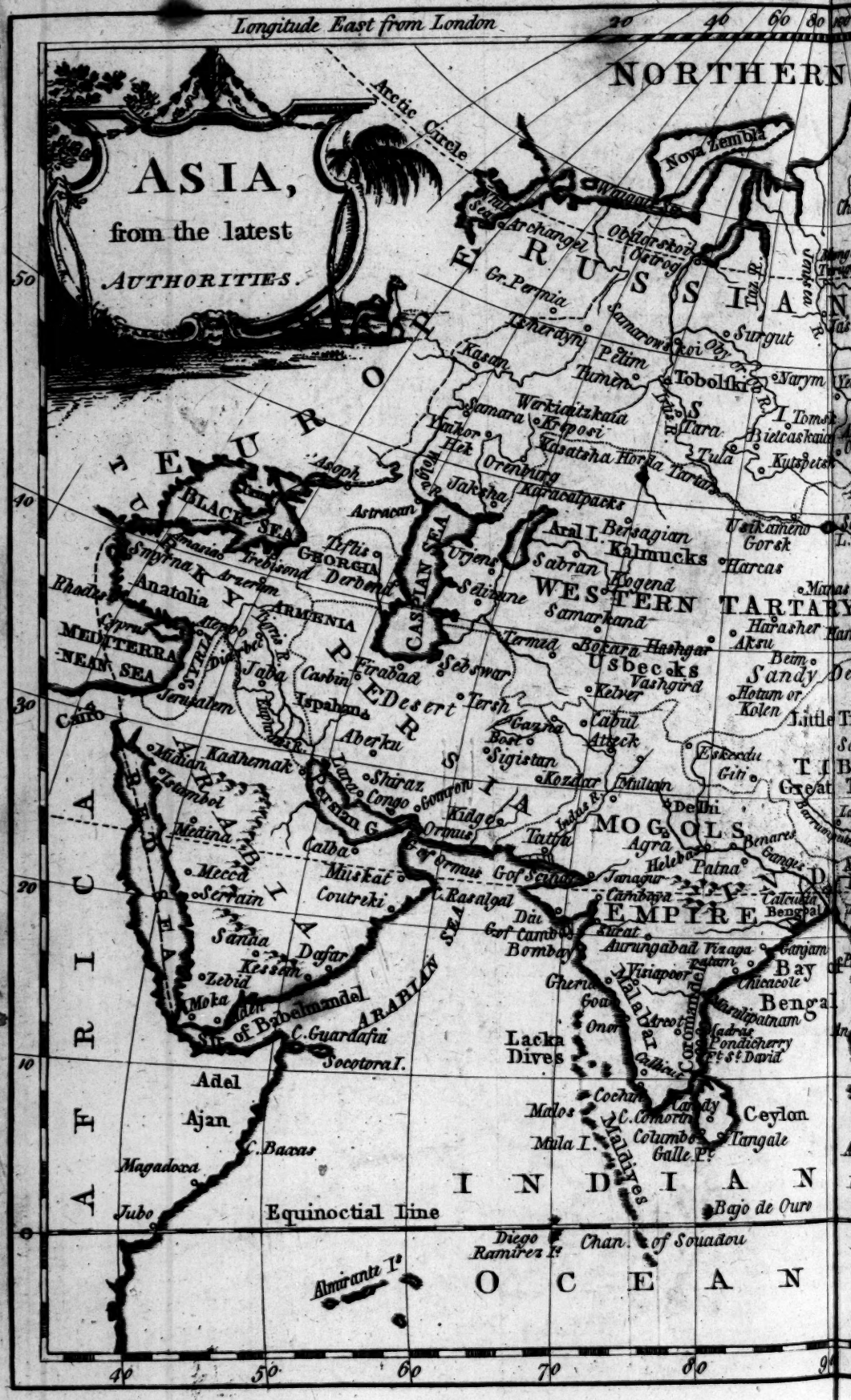
ASIA.

THIS quarter of the globe, by far the moſt conſiderable on account of its extent, wealth, and population, lies between 26 and 187 degrees of eaſt longitude; extending from the equator to 77 degrees of north latitude; while many of its iſlands, particularly that vaſt one of New Holland, lie conſiderably to the ſouthward of the line. From the Dardanelles on the weſt, to the eaſtern coaſt of Tartary, it is not much leſs than 5000 miles in length; and 4400 in breadth, from the northern coaſts to the ſouthern extremity of the peninſula of Malacca. On the north it is bounded by the Frozen Ocean; on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean; on the weſt, and ſouth-weſt by the Red Sea, the Mediterranean, Archipelago, Helleſpont, Sea of Marmora, Boſphorus, Black Sea, the river Don, a line drawn from that river to the Tobol, and from thence to the Oby, which then forms the boundary all the way to the Frozen Ocean. On the north-eaſt it is ſeparated from America by Bhering's Straits, and all the way from thence by the Pacific Ocean, or Great South Sea. Its principal diviſions are exhibited in the following table.

	Nations.	Length	Breadt.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Diſt. and bearing fm. Lond.	Diff. of time fm. London.	Religions
Tartary	Ruſſian	The bounds of		3,050,000	Tobolſk	2160 N. E	4 10 bef.	Ch. & Pag
	Chineſe	theſe parts are		644,000	Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
	Mogulean	unlimited, each		185,350	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
	indepeud.	power puſhing on his conqueſts as far as he can.		600,000	Samar Laſſa	2800 E. 4310	4 36 bef.	Pagans
	China	1440	1100	1,105,010	Peking	4320 S. E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
	Moguls	2000	1500	1,116,009	Delhi	3720 S E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. & P
	Ind. beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741,010	Siam Pegu	5040 S. E	6 44 bef.	Pag & M
	Perſia	1300	1100	800,009	Iſpahan	2460 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Mahom.
Turkey in Aſia.	Part of Arab.	1300	1200	700,009	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 bef.	Mahom.
	Syria	270	160	29,008	Aleppo	186 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. & Ma
	Holy Land	210	90	7,610	Jeruſalem	19 0 S E.	2 24 bef.	Ch & Ma
	Natolia	750	390	195,000	Burſa or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef	Mahom.
	Diarbeck or Meſopotam.	240	210	27,010	Diarbeck	2060 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans with ſome few Chriſtians.
	Irac, or Chaldea	422	240	50,409	Bagdad	2240		
	Turcomania or Armenia	360	300	55,008	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef	
	Georgia*	240	180	25,608	Teflis	920 E.	3 10 bef.	
	Curdiſtan or Aſſyria	210	205	23,904	Scherazer	2120 E.	3 bef.	Mahom.

* Georgia hath lately put itſelf under the protection of Ruſſia.

All


ASIA,
from the latest
AUTHORITIES.
Longitude East from London
20
40
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80
NORTHERN
Arctic Circle
Nova Zembla
Archangel
Ostrog
RUSSIA
Gr. Permia
Samarowskoi Ostrog
Surgut
Tobolski
Narym
Tomsk
Kasan
Werkiatzkaia
Samara
Kresposi
Tara
Tula
Kutsketsk
Orenburg
Jaksha
Karacalpacks
Astracan
Aral L.
Bersagian
Kalmucks
Usikamenoi Gorsk
Harcas
Asoph
Sea
Tiflis
Urgens
Sabran
Kogend
Derbend
Samarkand
WESTERN TARTARY
Smyrna
Trebisond
Anatolia
Erzerum
ARMENIA
Termid
Bokara
Hashgar
Aksu
Usbecks
Vashgird
Sandy
Hotun or Kolen
Little
Jaba
Carbin
Firabad
Sebzwar
Kelver
Ispahan
Tirsh
Cabul
Ganza
Attock
Aberku
Sigistan
Kozdar
Multan
Eskerdu
Giti
Great
Kadremak
Sharaz
Persian G.
Congo
Gomron
Kidge
Orinus
Delhi
MOGOLS
Agra
Tatta
Medina
Calba
Muskat
Gof of Ormus
Gof Scindi
Heleba
Patna
Mecca
Serrain
Coutreki
Rasalgat
Cambaya
EMPIRE
Calcutta
Bengal
Dio
Gof Cambay
Surat
Bombay
Aurungabad
Vizaga
Ganjam
Bay
Visiapor
Chicacole
Goa
Malabar
Bengal
Onor
Acrot
Madrass
Pondicherry
Fort St David
Lacka Dives
Cochin
Candy
Ceylon
Malos
C. Comorin
Columbo
Negapatam
Mula I.
Galle Pt.
Adel
Ajan
C. Baxas
Magadoxa
Jubo
Equinoctial Line
Bajo de Ouro
Diego Ramirez Is.
Chan. of Souadou
Amirante I.
EUROPE
TURKEY
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
PERSIA
ARABIA
RED SEA
ARABIAN SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
AFRICA
Desert
Sea of Babelmandel
C. Guardafui
Socotora I.
Zebid
Moka
Aden
Kessim
Dafar
Sanaa
Zidon
Tripoli
Jerusalem
Cairo
Rhodes
Cyprus
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Malvasia
Smyrna
Anatolia
Rivers
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Jaxartes R.
Oby R.
Irtish R.
Tobol R.
Tura R.
Tom R.
Jenisea R.
Lena R.
Yenisea R.
Ob R.
Petim
Tumen
Yaik R.
Volga R.
Don R.
Nieuskaia
Tartar
Horda
Yasatsha
Hek
Volga
Vinkor
Tula
Kutsketsk
Gorsk
Harcas
Kogend
Hashgar
Aksu
Beim
Sandy
Hotun or Kolen
Little
Vashgird
Kelver
Cabul
Attock
Ganza
Tirsh
Sebzwar
Firabad
Carbin
Jaba
Ispahan
Aberku
Sigistan
Kozdar
Multan
Eskerdu
Giti
Great
Delhi
Agra
Tatta
Heleba
Patna
Benares
Ganges
Jonagur
Cambaya
Calcutta
Bengal
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Aurungabad
Vizaga
Ganjam
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Chicacole
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Fort St David
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Ceylon
Malos
C. Comorin
Columbo
Negapatam
Mula I.
Galle Pt.
Tangale
Malaldives
Coromandel
Gof of Ormus
Gof Scindi
Gof Cambay
Indus R.
Ganges R.
Barampooter R.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Jaxartes R.
Oby R.
Irtish R.
Tobol R.
Tura R.
Tom R.
Jenisea R.
Lena R.
Yenisea R.
Ob R.
Petim
Tumen
Yaik R.
Volga R.
Don R.
Nieuskaia
Tartar
Horda
Yasatsha
Hek
Volga
Vinkor
Tula
Kutsketsk
Gorsk
Harcas
Kogend
Hashgar
Aksu
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Sandy
Hotun or Kolen
Little
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Attock
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Sebzwar
Firabad
Carbin
Jaba
Ispahan
Aberku
Sigistan
Kozdar
Multan
Eskerdu
Giti
Great
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Jonagur
Cambaya
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Aurungabad
Vizaga
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Chicacole
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Malabar
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Onor
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Madrass
Pondicherry
Fort St David
Lacka Dives
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Ceylon
Malos
C. Comorin
Columbo
Negapatam
Mula I.
Galle Pt.
Tangale
Malaldives
Coromandel
Gof of Ormus
Gof Scindi
Gof Cambay
Indus R.
Ganges R.
Barampooter R.
50
40
30
20
10
0
40
50
60
70
80
90

EASTERN OCEAN
EMPIRE
EASTERN TARTARY
Mongols
Sandy Desert
Kobi or Sandy Desert
CHINA
TIBET
Great Tibet
Little Tibet
Sea of Kamtschatka
Sea of Kamtschatka
Kamchatka
Sea of Kamtschatka
Sea of Corea
Korea
JAPAN
Jedo
Formosa I.
Tropic of Cancer
Philippin Isles
Lucoma Isles
Mariana Isles
Sulphur I.
Palaos or Pelew I.
Gilolo
Waigeu
NEW GUINEA
BORNEO
Celebes
Sunda Isles
Java
Sumatra
Malacca
Gulf of Siam
Gulf of Cochinchina
Hainan I.
Samar I.
Leyta I.
Mindanao
Banca
Billiton
Plajow
Timor
Tartary
Corea
Japan
Pekin
Nanking
Canton
Batavia
Str. of Sunda
Str. of Malacca
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Tropic of Capricorn
Amur R.
Lena R.
Jenisea R.
Irtish R.
Obi R.
Kamchatka
Bering's I.
C. Lopatka
C. St. Thadeus
C. Nabo
C. Awa
Watsisio
Nadeghda
Kurile Is.
Matmai
Yeso
Sagalien
Tartary
Tonduon
Numan
Parin
Kara Koram
Hami
Turfan
Lyang
Tay yuen
Tsi nan
Hay
Fongtyana
Cay-fon
Singan
Soute
Ouzychen
Chang-tu
Chingchew
Panking
Quey-yang
Quey ling
Yun Nan
Kyang
Kaichew
Tay-wan
Kaifo
Siam
Cambodia
Laos
Pegu
Ava
Arracan
Bengal
Calcutta
Ganges
Lassa
Whelyte
Tchelas
Barramputer
Chamdo
Tatsienlou
Ningyuen
Yay
Gulf
Kiang
Kiu
Kiang
Yang
Kiang
Hoang
ho
Yellow R.
Blue R.
Lena R.
Jenisea R.
Irtish R.
Obi R.
Amur R.
Aldan R.
Yakutsk
Yenisiesk
Irkuts
Selenginsk
Nertchinsk
Argun R.
Baikal L.
Tomsk
Tobolsk
Narym
Kutspetsk
Tarkan R.
Oleominskoi Ostrog
Udskoi Ostrog
Tauiskoi Ostrog
Ulutorskoi Ostrog
Karagainskoi
Kamchatkoi Nos
Anadir R.
C. Anadir
C. Tschukotskoi Noss
Swiatoi C.
Lamaskoi or Tungouskoi
Tungouskoi
Yakutsk
Yakoui
Langata
Alma
Tchasi
Parrakolun
Tatsicar
Saisean L.
Kamenoi
Irtish R.
Obi R.
Jenisea R.
Lena

All the iſlands of Aſia (except Cyprus, already deſcribed, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eaſtern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have ſettlements, are,

Iſlands.	Towns.	Sq. Miles.	Trade with or belong.
The Japaneſe iſles —	Jeddo, Meaco	138,010	Dutch
The Ladrones —	Guam —		Spain
Formoſa —	Tai ouan fou —	17,009	China
Anian — —	Kiontcheow —	11,900	China
The Philippines —	Manilla —	133,720	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove iſles	Victoria fort, Ternate		Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg iſles	Lantor —		Dutch
Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. (ſurrounding the Molucca & Banda iſles)	Amboyna —	400	Dutch
	Macaſſer —	68,410	Dutch
	Gilolo —	10,410	Dutch
The Sunda iſles (Borneo, Sumatra, Java, &c.)	Borneo, Caytongee	228,009	All nations
	Achen, Benkoolen	129,008	Engliſh and Dutch
	Batavia, Bantam	38,251	Dutch
The Andama & Nicobar iſles	Andaman, Nicobar		All nations
Ceylon — —	Candy —	27,732	Dutch
The Maldives — —	Caridon —		All nations
Bombay — —	Bombay —		Engliſh
The Kurile iſles, and thoſe in the ſea of Kamtſchatka, lately diſcovered by the Ruſſians — — —			Ruſſia

Concerning this vaſt tract of country in general, we have already obſerved, that it exceeds any of the other diviſions of the world in its extent, wealth, and population. Its air is more generally ſerene, the ſoil more univerſally fruitful, and the fruits, gems, and ſpices which it produces, ſuperior to any to be met with in other parts. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſilks and other ſtuffs produced in it, whoſe richneſs both for the durability of the cloth, and the beauty of the colours, are by no means to be matched. The continent of Aſia likewiſe produces vaſt quantities of the moſt precious metals, and the fineſt gems, though perhaps in this reſpect it may be equalled or even excelled by America, or Africa, were the latter ſufficiently explored. On other accounts, however, this continent is ſtill more remakarble. Here it was that the Deity firſt thought proper to plant the human race; here it was that death firſt began to reign, and here alſo life was reſtored by the work of redemption accompliſhed by our Saviour, and the ſubſequent preaching of the apoſtles. From the ſame continent alſo ſprung the firſt origin of arts and ſciences; for it is univerſally allowed, that ſcarce one of them was invented in Europe, but that the weſtern nations were at firſt ſunk in the moſt deſperate ignorance and brutality. Here the firſt kingdoms and empires were erected; ſome of which, particularly that of China, have continued to the preſent time, almoſt as much unknown to Europeans as if they had never exiſted, at leaſt with regard to their ancient ſtate; for it is only with the weſtern Aſiatics that the Greeks and Romans had any connection. The deficiency in the European hiſtories concerning theſe diſtant empires, is indeed very remarkable; and the ſilence of the ſacred writers concerning them is no leſs ſo. Nor is it by any means eaſy to account for the diſagreement between the European and Aſiatic hiſtories of even the more weſterly nations of this continent. Nothing, one ſhould think, could be better authenticated than the expe-

ditions

ditions of Darius Hydaſpes, and Xerxes againſt Greece. The unfortunate event of theſe muſt have affected the Perſians to ſuch a degree, that they could not eaſily have been forgot; yet not a word is ſaid about them in the Perſian hiſtories, nor could we imagine that we read an account of the ſame people, when we compare a Greek hiſtory with an Oriental one. All however are agreed about the expedition of Alexander the Great, and the conqueſt of Perſia by him, ſo that, excepting what is recorded in ſacred writ, we may ſay that the Aſiatic hiſtory commences with this period. On the decline of his empire, a conſiderable part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Romans; but they were never able to ſubdue, or at leaſt to make any permanent conquſt of the empire of Perſia, which always remained like a mighty barrier betwixt the ambition of European nations, and the rich countries to the eaſtward. After the diſſolution of the Roman empire, however, the Saracens, having overturned that of Perſia, penetrated far into India, or rather the ſouthern parts of Tartary. After them the Tartars, under Jenghis Khan and his ſucceſſors, conquered and deſolated the northern parts of the continent, though India and Perſia remained in a great meaſure exempted from their depredations. On the diſſolution of his empire, another ſimilar to it aroſe under Tamerlane, who ſubdued Perſia and India, but died as indeed Jenghis Khan had done before him, while on an expedition to conquer China. The Tartars, however, did at laſt ſubdue this empire, but their conqueſt, we may ſay, occaſioned no revolution in the country; for the conquerors quickly adopted the manners and cuſtoms of the conquered, and allowed every thing to remain as it was. In the weſtern parts, the Turks made themſelves maſters, and have kept poſſeſſion for a long time without making many attempts to extend their empire eaſtward, where indeed the Perſians are now their formidable enemies. In modern times, however, the European nations have found out an eaſier acceſs to the moſt remote nations of Aſia, than could be had formerly, when it was neceſſary to march over land, viz. by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, and ſending thither vaſt fleets, both for the purpoſes of commerce and conqueſt. Thus great part of the empire of India has paſſed into the hands of the Britiſh, which the indolent and effeminate inhabitants have ſhewn themſelves utterly unable to recover from them. At preſent, therefore, there are only two great empires purely Aſiatic, in the whole continent, viz. the Perſian and Chineſe. Great part of Tartary indeed is ſubject to Ruſſia; but this is an European power, as we muſt now account the Turks themſelves to be, though they originally came from Aſia. In all theſe empires, and indeed through all the petty kingdoms of Aſia, it is remarkable that deſpotiſm, luxury, and effeminancy, have attained to almoſt their greateſt poſſible height; ſo that if any of the inhabitants can be ſaid to enjoy liberty, or to be capable of defending themſelves againſt enemies, they are the wandering Arabs and Tartars; the others ſeem to be protected only by the vaſt extent of their country. So much indeed are they attached to their deſpotic forms of government, that, when the Dutch came firſt among them, many were not able to comprehend how it was poſſible for a nation to ſubſiſt without a deſpotic form of government. With reſpect to religion, Chriſtianity ſeems in a manner to have withdrawn itſelf from the Aſiatic continent; the Mahommedan ſuperſtition being the moſt generally prevalent, and next to it downright heatheniſm and idolatry. The true religion indeed hath been greatly profaned

profaned by the avarice and wickedneſs of all kinds, diſplayed in the lives of its profeſſors; ſo that, notwithſtanding the vaſt pains which the Popiſh miſſionaries have been at, and the great hazards they have run to propagate it in the moſt diſtant regions, their endeavours have never been attended with any permanent ſucceſs. The languages principally ſpoken in this continent, are the modern Greek, Ruſſian, Turkiſh, Tartarian, Perſian, Malagan, Arabic, and Chineſe. On the coaſts where the Europeans reſide, they ſpeak their own language, and have taught them to the natives.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Extent and Situation. THIS part of the Ottoman empire is almoſt 1000 miles long and 800 broad, containing 520,000 ſquare miles, and lying between 26 and 47 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between 26 and 47 of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Black Sea and Circaſſia; on the ſouth by Arabia and the Levant, or the eaſtern part of the Mediterranean; on the weſt by the Helleſpont and the Propontis; and on the eaſt by Perſia. The diviſions are as follows.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
The Eaſtern provinces are	1. Arabic or Chaldea Eyraca	Boſſora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec or Meſopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa, & Monſul.
	3. Curdiſtan or Aſſyria	Nineveh and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imeretia, and part of Circaſſia	Teflis, Amarchia, & Gonie.
Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the Weſt.	1. Natolia Proper	Burſa, Nici, Smyrna, and Epheſus.
	2. Amaſia - - -	Armaſia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia - - -	Ajazzo Marat.
	4. Caramania - - -	Satalia and Teraſſo.
Eaſt of the Levant Sea.	Syria, with Paleſtine, or the Holy Land.	Aleppo, Antioch, Damaſcus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, & Jeruſalem.

Mountains. The moſt remarkable of theſe are Olympus, Taurus, and Antitaurus, Caucaſus, Ararat, Lebanon, and Hermon. Taurus, properly ſpeaking, is a great chain of mountains, running through the Leſſer Aſia from weſt to eaſt, paſſing all through Perſia, and terminating in the empire of India. In different places they have different names; and, before the diſcovery of America, they were ſuppoſed to be the

largeſt in the world. Caucaſus is a name given to the higheſt part of a chain of mountains, part of which belong to thoſe called Taurus. Their ſummits are perpetually covered with ſnow, and the paſſage over them is very difficult, as they are full of rocks and precipices. The paſſes by which theſe mountains can be croſſed, were anciently called *Portæ* or *Gates*. The eaſtern parts terminate in two of theſe, through which the Huns entered the territories of the Romans and Perſians. Ararat is remarkable for being the mountain on which the ark reſted. It is not a chain of mountains, like thoſe of Taurus and Caucaſus already mentioned, but a ſingle one with two tops, one ſomewhat higher than the other. Its height is very great, and no traveller of any credit pretends to have reached the top. As far as it has been aſcended, the road is very difficult and dangerous; in ſome parts being full of quick-ſands, in others, of dreadful and horrid precipices; and laſtly, the danger is great from multitudes of wild beaſts, particularly tygers, which inhabit theſe parts. The remains of the ark are ſaid to have been a long time viſible upon the top of this mountain; and even in the time of ſome of the Chriſtian fathers, this was looked upon to be an inconteſtable fact. Some pretend that theſe remains are to this day viſible, but the difficulty, or rather impoſſibility of aſcending the mountain, renders this matter very uncertain. It muſt indeed be very improbable, that the parts of any wooden veſſel ſhould remain for ſuch a length of time uncorrupted; but in anſwer to this two things may be urged, firſt the incorruptible nature of the cypreſs tree, of which the ark is ſuppoſed to have been made; and, ſecond, the thinneſs of the air on the top of ſuch an high mountain, by which the putrefactive proceſs would undoubtedly be greatly reſtrained. We cannot, therefore, abſolutely deny, but that the remains of this extraordinary veſſel may ſtill be viſible on the top of the mountain where it firſt reſted; though Divine Providence, for reaſons perhaps unſearchable by us, hath denied all acceſs to them. Mount Lebanon is not a ſingle mountain like Ararat, but a great chain of immenſe height and extent, lying between Syria and Paleſtine, and reaching from Sidon to the eaſtward of Damaſcus. To the ſouthward of this is another callled *Antilibanus*, equal in height and extent to the former. Lebanon has been celebrated for its cedars, both in ſacred and profane hiſtory, which formerly ſupplied ſeveral different nations; but theſe are now reduced to a ſmall number. Hermon is frequently mentioned in ſcripture, as well as Lebanon. It had on it a temple dedicated to Baal; but the top of it is ſo high, that it is always covered with ſnow, ſome of which is at this day carried as far as Tyre to cool their liquors. It abounds with fir an dcedartrees, many of which are tall and very ſtately; and there are ſeveral caves, one of which is ſaid to be capable of containing 4000 men.

Rivers. The principal of theſe are the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontes, Meander, Sarabat, Kara, and Jordan. Almoſt all of theſe are famous in ſacred or profane hiſtory. The Euphrates iſſues from two ſources, to the northward of Erzerum, in Turcomania, in north latitude 40° 16'. Both of theſe unite their ſtreams three days journey below that city, and to this place ſmall veſſels may come up; but the navigation is very dangerous, by reaſon of the rocky channel of the river. At firſt, the courſe of its ſtream is from eaſt to weſt; but, meeting with mount Taurus, it turns to the ſouthward, and running on in a ſouth-eaſt courſe, it ſeparates Syria from Aſſyria. Afterwards paſſing through *Eyrac Arabi*, the

ancient

ancient Chaldæa, it joins the Tigris, continuing the ſame courſe to Baſſora; 48 leagues below which, it diſcharges itſelf into the Perſian Gulf. The Tigris riſes in the mountains of Armenia; from whence, running ſouthward, it divides Diarbeker, or Meſopotamia from the ancient Aſſyria, now Curdiſtan. After viſiting Bagdad, it unites with the Euphrates in Eyrac Arabi, and falls into the Perſian Gulf as abovementioned. This, as well as the former, is accounted one of the rivers of Paradiſe. The Jordan, a river greatly celebrated in ſacred hiſtory, riſes among the mountains of Lebanon, whence it runs to the ſouthward for upwards of 150 miles, forming two lakes in its progreſs. One of theſe, called the Sea of Galilee, is almoſt dry in ſummer, but full in the winter ſeaſon, being about 12 miles long, and 8 in breadth. The other, called the Salt, or Dead Sea, is that in which the river terminates, where Sodom and Gomorrah formerly ſtood, and is about 70 miles long, and 18 or 20 broad. The river at the preſent is not ſo large as to anſwer the magnificent deſcriptions of it in former times; the channel being only about 20 yards in breadth.

Air, Soil, &c. The air in moſt of the provinces of Turkey in Aſia is extremely pure and ſalubrious, notwithſtanding which, as we have formerly obſerved when ſpeaking of Turkey in Europe, the inhabitants are very frequently viſited by the plague, which is the more deſtructive, on account of the abſurd way in which the Turks explain the doctrines of predeſtination; imagining, that, becauſe God hath infallibly decreed every thing that comes to paſs, he hath therefore ſeparated the end from the means by which it is to be accompliſhed; or that he will by an act of his omnipotence, preſerve or put an end to human life, without regard to the natural means by which the health of man is either made better or worſe. In conſequence of this, they take no care of themſelves when infected with the plague; nor do they make the leaſt heſitation at putting on the clothes of infected perſons, or buying and ſelling goods the moſt ready to receive the infection. Thus vaſt numbers more are infected than otherwiſe would have the diſeaſe, and many of thoſe die who are infected, that might recover by proper care. With regard to the ſoil, as the empire we treat of contains the moſt fertile provinces in the weſtern part of Aſia, we may readily believe that it will produce every thing neceſſary for the comfort or luxury of the human race. Fruits of every kind, wine, oil, honey, coffee, myrrh, frankincenſe, with all kinds of odoriferous plants and gums, are produced here without almoſt any trouble. The oranges, lemons, citrons, and other fruits of that kind, produced throughout the provinces of Turkey in Aſia, are extremely delicious, and ſo plentiful, that in ſome places they may be had for the mere trouble of gathering them. The grapes are of a very extraordinary magnitude, and the aſparagus is often as large as a man's leg.

Metals and Minerals. Both of theſe, and of the moſt precious kinds, are to be met with in the provinces of Turkey in Aſia in the greateſt plenty. There are alſo medicinal ſprings and baths, whoſe virtues are ſaid to exceed thoſe of any other country in the world.

Animals. The Turkiſh and Arabian horſes are looked upon to be the fineſt in the world; and the Engliſh breed is ſaid to have been much mended by them. The ſheep and kids of theſe countries are excellent eating, but the beef is ſaid to be inferior to ours. They have plenty of fowl both wild and tame; and the fiſh of Aſia were prized by the Romans beyond thoſe of any other country. The moſt remarkable quadruped

druped in theſe parts is the camel, well known on account of its wonderful faculty of traverſing deſarts without any inclination to drink. This is owing to the quantity of water which they take in at one time; the greateſt part of which is lodged in a bag or ſtomach, from whence it is occaſionally diſcharged into that which contains the victuals, and thus ſupplies the wants of the animal without taking in any freſh ſupply by the mouth. Hence, alſo, we are informed that travellers, when paſſing through the deſart regions of the eaſt, ſupply themſelves with water by killing one or more of the camels they have along with them, and drinking the water contained in the bag abovementioned. The manufacture called *Camlet* was firſt compoſed of camels hair and ſilk, though now frequently of wool and ſilk.

Population, Inhabitants, &c. The number of people inhabiting theſe extenſive regions is now greatly inferior to what it was formerly; owing no doubt to the tyranny and deſpotic nature of the Turkiſh government. The polygamy, ſo frequent in theſe parts, alſo is by ſome thought to be an enemy to population; though a late traveller, Mr Bruce, denies this, and aſſerts, that in the eaſtern countries, polygamy is the law of nature; there being in theſe places two, three, or even four women to one man; and he thinks it, beyond diſpute, that four women will have more children by one man, than one man and one woman could be ſuppoſed to have. But whatever be in this, if polygamy be not an enemy to population, it certainly does not augment it; for in the countries we ſpeak of, where polygamy is generally practiſed, the inhabitants are much leſs numerous in proportion than in our own; ſo that there muſt be ſome other obſtacle not yet explained, which counteracts the increaſe of number, that according to our author's plan ought to ariſe from the uſe of polygamy. An irrefragable argument againſt the opinion of our author is, that the Greeks and Armenians, who marry but one wife, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks who uſe polygamy. Other cauſes of depopulation, however, there undoubtedly are, particularly the plague; and there is no doubt that the general ſloth and indolence of the inhabitants will prevent them from procuring proper food for themſelves and families, and thus ſhorten the lives of many, particularly of the younger claſs, notwithſtanding the great fertility of the ſoil; but notwithſtanding all theſe defects, it is certain, that the Grand Signior has more ſubjects than any two European princes. The city of Conſtantinople alone is ſuppoſed to contain 800,000 or a million of inhabitants.

The Turks in general are robuſt and well made, fair complexioned, and handſome when young, with dark brown or black hair and eyes. Their behaviour is ſuch as we may expect from a people not yet emerged from barbarity, and immerſed in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtition. When undiſturbed by any paſſion they are grave, or rather melancholy and ſtupid, regarding nothing but what immediately concerns their own intereſt, to which they are abſolute ſlaves. Their intellectual faculties indeed are frequently deſtroyed, or at leaſt very conſiderably injured by the pernicious practice of chewing opium; which, though it does not kill, produces in them a ſpecies of drunkenneſs infinitely worſe than that occaſioned by ſpirituous liquors among ourſelves. But when agitated by paſſion or jealouſy, a Turk becomes quite furious, ungovernable, and vindictive beyond imagination; often giving a looſe to the moſt ſhocking and incredible cruelty. With regard to their women, the male travel-

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EUROPE
HUNGARY
TURKY IN EUROPE
POLAND
MORAVIA
GERMANY
CROATIA
SCLAVONIA
BOSNIA
SERVIA
WALACHIA
TRANSYLVANIA
MOLDAVIA
BULGARIA
ROMANIA
MACEDONIA
THESSALY
EPIRUS
ACHAIA
MOREA
CANDIA
ARCHIPELAGO
ADRIATIC SEA
IONIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN
ITALY
Carpathian Mountains
Danube R.
Save R.
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Lepanto
Gulf of Salonichi
Gulf of Corone
Gulf of Tarento
C. Spartivento
C. St John
C. Matala
Vienna
Presburgh
Neuhausel
Comorn
Buda
Post
Gran
Vacz
Agria
Javarin
Sarvar
Gratz
Tokay
Hust
Kisward
Bolgar
Unguar
Eperies
Caschaw
Leopolstat
Trenczin
Hradest
Neitra
Siret
Moldau Soczowa
Kimpulung R.
Bistritz
Samosvirar
Davideni
Romanii
Vatrankeli
Bacou
Buzantia
Brassou
Foksziani
Campolongo
Ribnico
Jalonitza
Tergoviste
Tergoyl
Ribnik
Ceben
Hermanstat
Wisenburg
Alba Julia
Arad
Segedin
Temeswar
Petrowosdo
Bacs
Peterwaradin
Werchez
Belgrade
Semendria
Smaic
Orsova
Argis
Brancovani
Craiova
Caracal
Buccorest
Rassovat
Rusci
Szurza
Torri
Nicopoli
Ruszia
Nissa
Rehova
Drenovaz
Widin
Lutzkain
Czernez
Jagodina
Viszegrad
Zwornick
Seraio
Mostar
Uscitergnie
Techin
Bazar
Novi
S. Saba
Prisrend
Pristin
Giustendil
Sophia
Comonava
Bagni
Philippopoli
Ternobo
Marcenopoli
Burgas
Assarti
Adrianople
Demetica
Rodosto
Ganos
Enos
Thasso I.
Mt Athos
Lemnos
Dardanelles
Scopoli I.
Sciros
Mytilene
Ispra a I.
Samos
Paros
Naxia
Milo
Santorin
Cerigo I.
Cerigoto
Standia
Candia
Retimo
Spina longa
Canea
Zante
Strivali Is.
Cephalonia
Ithaca
Corfu I.
Butrinto
Arta
Janna
Chimera
Durazzo
Dulcigno
Antivari
Scutari
Akrida
Albasano
Dragoth
Belgrade
Cara Veria
Larissa
Volo
Zeitun
Salona
Lepanto
Patras
Corinth
Athens
Thebes
Negropont I.
Argos
Tripolitza
Modon
Coron
Misitra
Navarin
Sapienza I.
Cerigo
Cabo Matapan
Scarpanto
Tino
Misoni
Patmos
Smyrna
Scio
Lesbos
Ancona
Ragusa
Cattaro
Durazzo
Tremiti Is.
Sebenico
Zara
Lissa
Ancona
Ferrara
Bologna
Venice
Trieste
Fiume
Carlstat
Gradiska
Posega
Petrinia
Banjaluka
Bihacs
Sale
Morlachia
Dalmatia
Albania
Romania
Bulgaria
Servia
Croatia
Sclavonia
Transylvania
Moldavia
Wallachia
Hungary
Germany
Moravia
Poland
British Statute Miles.
20 50 100 150 200
10 18 22 24 26 28
18 20 22 24 28
36 40 44 48

RUSSIA
Black Forest
Perewolocza
Samara R.
Archangelgorod
Kudak
Ingulgorad
BUDZIAC TARTARY
Desert Plains
LITTLE TARTARY
Desert Plains
Bender
Oczakow
Cherson
Nieper R.
Moloshnaya R.
SEA OF ASOPH
Precop
Genizo
Belgorod
C. Tandra
Bachsak
Arabat
KUBAN
Karabazan
Teman
Kosleve
CRIM
Kaffa
Genikola
CIRCASSIA
Bacziseria
Balylava
Str. of Kaffa
BESSARABIA
Kilia
Ismail
Mouths of the Danube
Mankatia
BLACK SEA
Varna
Boundary of Europe
Adrianople
Bosphorus of Thrace
Galata
CONSTANTINOPLE
SEA OF MARMORA
Isnikmid
Isnits
Ereki
Aynabuli
Sinub
Kizilermak
Samson
Krangari
Angora
Tchouroum
Eskisethir
TURKY IN ASIA
Akserai
Akesh
Koni
Smyrna
Degnisly
NATOLIA
Moglaw
Antalia
Almati
Rhodes
I. Rhodes
SEA
LEVANT
Longitude East from London
TURKY
in EUROPE,
& HUNGARY,
from the latest
Authorities.
T. Conder Sculp.

lers agree that they are confined in a moſt extraordinary manner. Mr Thomſon informs us, "that even the chief phyſician of the Sultan is not admitted without difficulty to viſit the ladies in their illneſs. He muſt neither ſee them, nor be ſeen by them; and, as if the touch of his finger would profane them, he is not ſuffered to feel their pulſe but through a piece of gauze or crape. The women who attend upon the patient dare not give the leaſt intimation to the phyſician of the nature of her diſorder, but immediately quit the room upon his approach. Nobody remains about the bed but the eunuch, who juſt lifts up the edge of the curtain as far as he thinks neceſſary for the poor creature to put out her arm; and ſhould the phyſician attempt to remove the thin covering, and touch her fleſh, his life muſt atone for his indiſcretion." M. Tourneſort obſerves, that "Hippocrates, with all his knowledge, would have been ſtrangely embaraſſed, if he had had ſuch people as the Turks to deal with. For myſelf, ſays he, who have been bred up in his ſchool, and according to his maxims, I was extremely at a loſs how to behave towards the great men, when I was called in, and viſited the apartments of their wives. Theſe apartments are like the dormitories of our religious, and at every door I found an arm, covered with gauze, thruſt out through a ſmall loop hole made on purpoſe. At firſt I fancied they were arms of braſs or wood to ſerve for ſconces to light up candles at night; but it ſurpriſed me when I was told that I muſt cure the perſons to whom theſe arms belonged." It is death to behold any of the ſultanas, or be ſeen by them even by accident. The Grand Signior frequently takes pleaſure in ſeeing his gardeners at work; but this is only when he is alone. When he brings any of the ladies into the garden, none of the workmen dare ſhew themſelves, or if any happen to be there, they muſt endeavour to hide themſelves as quick as poſſible, by falling flat upon the ground or otherwiſe; for if one ſhould be ſeen and taken, the crime would be deemed unpardonable, and the wretch put to death upon the ſpot. On the other hand, Lady Craven gives us a very different account of the ſituation of the women in Turkey. "As to women, ſays her ladyſhip, as many, if not more than men, are to be ſeen in the ſtreets, but they look like walking mummies. A large looſe robe of dark green cloth covers them from the neck to the ground; over that a large piece of muſlin, which wraps the ſhoulders and the arms, another which goes over the head and the eyes. Judge, Sir, if all theſe coverings do not confound all ſhape or air ſo much, that men or women, princeſſes and ſlaves may be concealed under them. I think I never ſaw a country where women may enjoy ſo much liberty, and free from all reproach, as in Turkey. A Turkiſh huſband that ſees a pair of ſlippers at the door of his harem muſt not enter. His reſpect for the ſex prevents him from intruding, when a ſtranger is there, upon a viſit: how eaſy is it then for men to viſit and paſs for women? Moſques are conſtantly open; and I could not help reflecting that their mode of worſhip is extremely convenient for carrying on a plot of any kind. A figure wrapped up like a mummy can eaſily kneel down by another without being ſuſpected, and mutter in a whiſper any ſort of thing; the longer the converſation laſts, the more edified a ſilent obſerver may be." In the deſcription of the perſons of the Turkiſh women, her ladyſhip is not very favourable. She had an opportunity indeed of ſeeing them in their primitive ſtate, by being admitted to their bagnios. "There were, ſays ſhe, above 50; ſome having their hair waſhed, others dyed and

plaited; ſome were at the laſt part of their toilet, putting with a fine gold pin the black dye into their eyelids; in ſhort, I ſaw here Turkiſh and Greek nature, through every degree of concealment in her primitive ſtate; for the women in the inner-room were abſolutely ſo many Eves; and as they came out their fleſh looked as if it had been boiled. Theſe baths are the great amuſement of the women; they ſtay generally five hours in them, that is in the water, and at their toilet together; but I think I never ſo many fat women together at once, nor fat ones ſo fat as theſe. There is much art and coquetry in the arrangement of their dreſs; the ſhift particularly, which cloſes by hooks behind between the ſhoulders, after it is faſtened round the waiſt, there is a ſpecies of ſtay or corſet that I had no idea of, but which to women melted down as theſe were was perfectly neceſſary. We had very preſſing ſolicitations to undreſs and bathe; but ſuch a diſguſting ſight as this would have put me in an ill humour with my ſex in a bath for ages. Few of theſe women had fair ſkins or fine forms, hardly any; and Madam Gaſpari tells me, that the encomiums and flattery a fine young woman would meet with in theſe baths would be aſtoniſhing. In the evening, the Athenian girls were invited to perform before me the ancient dance called Ariadne's dance; a more ſtupid performance as a dance I never ſaw," &c. Our limits cannot allow us to give any farther deſcription of the Turkiſh ladies, ſo we ſhall conclude with this further anecdote from our fair traveller. "It may be ſaid, that in Turkey, women are perfectly ſafe from an idle, curious, and impertinent public, and what is called the *World* can never diſturb the eaſe and quiet of a Turkiſh wife. Of miſery, unleſs a Turkiſh woman is beyond conception unreaſonable, I cannot imagine that her portion can be great. According to what I hear, a Turkiſh huſband does not care for his wife as the object of his paſſion, except for a very ſhort ſpace of time; but, as his wife, ſhe enjoys all the luxury of his fortune; and I repeat it, Sir, I think no women have ſo much liberty, ſafe from apprehenſion, as the Turkiſh; and I think them in their manner of living capable of being the happieſt creatures breathing!"

The Aſiatic Turks are by ſome travellers ſaid to be ſuperior to thoſe of Europe in point of morals. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and the inhumanity and avarice with which they are commonly charged, ſeem to reign chiefly among their great men. As inſtances of their generoſity and benevolence, it is urged, that they build caravanſeras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are totally deſtitute of accommodation, for the refreſhment of poor travellers; and with the ſame view they ſearch out the beſt ſprings and dig wells, which in thoſe warm countries afford an unſpeakable refreſhment to thoſe who have occaſion to expoſe themſelves to the ſun. In Turkey the hour of dinner is eleven, and in Winter ſupper is ſerved up at five in the afternoon. The company ſit croſs-legged at their meals as well as at all other times, and this unnatural and diſagreeable poſture is ſuppoſed to give them a kind of ſtoop as they walk, obſervable eſpecially in the women. Their ignorance and ſtupidity, according to lady Craven, exceeds every thing we can imagine. "I think it a lucky thing, ſays her ladyſhip, for the ambaſſadors, that the Turks neither give nor receive viſits. Could any thing be ſo terrible as the ſociety of the moſt ignorant and uninformed men upon earth? Perhaps it is lucky for Europe that the Turks are idle and ignorant; the immenſe power this empire might have, were it peo-

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pled by the induſtrious and ambitious, would make it the miſtreſs of the world. At preſent it ſeems only as a dead wall to intercept the commerce and battles which other powers might create one with another. The quiet ſtupid Turk will ſit a whole day by the ſide of the canal, looking at flying kites, or children's boats; and I ſaw one who was enjoying the ſhade of an immenſe plantain tree, his eyes fixed on a kind of bottle, diverted by the noiſe and motion of it, while the ſtream kept it in conſtant motion.

The religion of the Turks inclines them to be ſober and temperate in eating and drinking; but though forbidden the uſe of wine, they frequently indulge themſelves in the uſe of ſtrong liquors, or, what is ſtill worſe, in opium. Their victuals are always high ſeaſoned; the lower claſs feed upon rice ſometimes boiled up with gravy; but the principal diſh is *pilau*, conſiſting of mutton or fowl boiled to rags, with rice boiled to dryneſs, the ſoup poured upon it, after which the whole is high-ſeaſoned. Their common drink is water, ſherbet, or coffee. Their ſupper is their principal meal; and, among the great, the diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are prohibited by their religion from the uſe of gold and ſilver ſpoons. The common ſalutation throughout this empire is by laying the right hand on the breaſt, and inclining the head; and in the night time they ſleep upon matraſſes covered with a quilt, and having on linen waiſtcoats and drawers. Their diverſions are principally ſhooting at a mark, or tilting with darts, at both which they are very dextrous. Some of them are alſo fond of hunting; though this is ſuppoſed often to be done with a view to know the number of their dependents, as the great men are always ſure to be joined by them when they take the field. Few or none of them have any notion of walking or riding as healthful exerciſes; but the frequent waſhings enjoined them by their religion generally find them exerciſe ſufficient for preſerving health. Cheſs, or draughts, are their favourite amuſements within doors; or they will alſo play at games of chance, but it is forbidden by the Koran to bet money. In Turkey the women are the chief negociators of marriages, and when the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a ſum of money; a licence is taken out from the cadi, or magiſtrate; after this, the parties are married, and the wedding, as in other countries, is celebrated with mirth and jollity. The Turks are allowed to take four wives, (a circumſtance, which, according to Mr Bruce, Mahomet copied from the law of nature in theſe parts) and they may likewiſe have as many concubines as they pleaſe. The concubines, and ſometimes alſo the wives, are bought in an open market as we do cattle. The merchants who buy, after viewing their beauty and examining into their qualifications, turn them round and round, examining them from head to foot, and ſometimes cauſing them exerciſe themſelves in any thing they have been taught to do. Thoſe who have the feweſt perſonal charms are ſet apart for ſervile work, but the others are bought up for the ſultan or great men about the court. Such as have brown or auburn hair give a much higher price than others. The funerals of the Turks are conducted with great decency; the corpſe being attended by the relations chanting paſſages of the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque, they are buried by an Iman, or prieſt, who delivers a kind of funeral ſermon. The ſorrow of the women is ſhown by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers, and green branches, or

leaves;

leaves; for a husband they wear a particular kind of head dress, and abstain from all fine apparel for a twelvemonth. The men, in token of sorrow, give alms, and say prayers.

Religion. Mahometanism is established throughout all the provinces of the Turkish empire; but there are innumerable sects among them as well as among Christians. Any one may be a priest who chooses to take the office upon him; but the high priest, or mufti, seems to have great power in the state. Christian institutions, however, are tolerated, but under a certain tribute, which makes part of the public revenue; but the hardships imposed upon those of the Greek church, who are most numerous, naturally incline them to take part in any revolution of government. All male Christians pay a capitation tax, from the age of 17 to 60; and there are taxes besides upon archbishoprics, bishoprics, and other ecclesiastical institutions.

Language. The Sclavonian is said to be the root from whence the Turkish language is derived; but the Greeks speak a dialect of their ancient language, though very different from the classic Greek, so that our best scholar could not now understand it.

Learning and Learned Men. The Turks have, from the earliest accounts of their nation, paid no regard to learning, nor would they allow the means of propagating it, viz. printing, to be used among them. Their prejudices in this respect, however, have been now got over, and a printing press has been established at Constantinople; nevertheless, their books are still for the most part manuscripts, and they seldom know more than merely how to read the Koran in their own language. Some understand a little of astronomy, and are even able to calculate eclipses; but these are very few, and they are looked upon as extraordinary persons.

Antiquities and Curiosities. The remains of ancient magnificence are no where displayed to more advantage than in the provinces of Turkey in Asia. Not only that of the Greeks and Romans, but even of Solomon himself are here to be met with. Balbec is supposed to have been the work of Solomon. It stands on a ground gently rising at the foot of mount Lebanon, between Tripoli in Syria and Damascus, and the remains of it, according to those who are accounted judges in these matters, shew the boldest plans ever displayed in architecture. The temple of this place is still extremely magnificent, though disfigured by two towers which the Turks have built upon it; and the court behind it, which is of an hexagonal figure, is almost entirely demolished. There is an intablature belonging to the temple, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of only three pieces, joined together by iron pins a foot long, and as much in diameter; but such is the ignorance and barbarity of the Turks, that they are daily at work to destroy these columns on purpose to get the iron; however, there is still a temple standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and 15 in flank, every where richly ornamented with relief figures, representing the heads of gods, emperors, heroes, &c. as well as part of the ancient heathen mythology. There are many other admirable pieces of workmanship to be met with in this place, concerning the foundation of which we are very much in the dark. The Asiatics ascribe them to Solomon, while others make them as modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. If these idolatrous temples were really built by Solomon, it must have been during the time

time of his dotage, when he apoſtatized from the worſhip of the true God; and indeed the architecture ſeems to be done in a ſtile ſuperior to that of either the Greeks or Romans after the Chriſtian Æra. It is probable, indeed, that they might have been done at various times, and additions or improvements made by different princes. At preſent the city of Balbec contains about 5000 inhabitants, principally Greeks, who live near the circular temple, in houſes built from the ancient ruins. The temple is conſtructed of free ſtone taken from a quarry in the neighbourhood; and one of the ſtones, not quite detached from the bottom, ſtill lying there, meaſures 70 feet in length, 14 in breadth, and 14 feet five inches in depth, weighing by calculation 1135 tons. The ornamental parts have been taken from a coarſe white marble quarry at ſome diſtance.

About 200 miles to the eaſtward of Aleppo, are the ruins of the celebrated Palmyra, or Tadmor in the Deſert, a city ſaid to be built by Solomon. It is ſituated in the deſerts of Arabia Petræa, about the latitude of 32 degrees north, and is approached by a narrow plain, which opening all at once, diſplays the moſt aſtoniſhing remains of antiquity perhaps to be met with in the world. Some years ago Mr Wood of Oxford, with ſome of his friends, took a journey thither, on purpoſe to take drawings of theſe ruins, which conſiſt of an amazing colonnade of not leſs than 4000 feet in length, terminated by porticoes, temples, a mauſoleum, &c. but all in ſuch a disjointed and ruinous ſituation, that it is impoſſible to form any adequate idea of the whole when in its perfect ſtate.

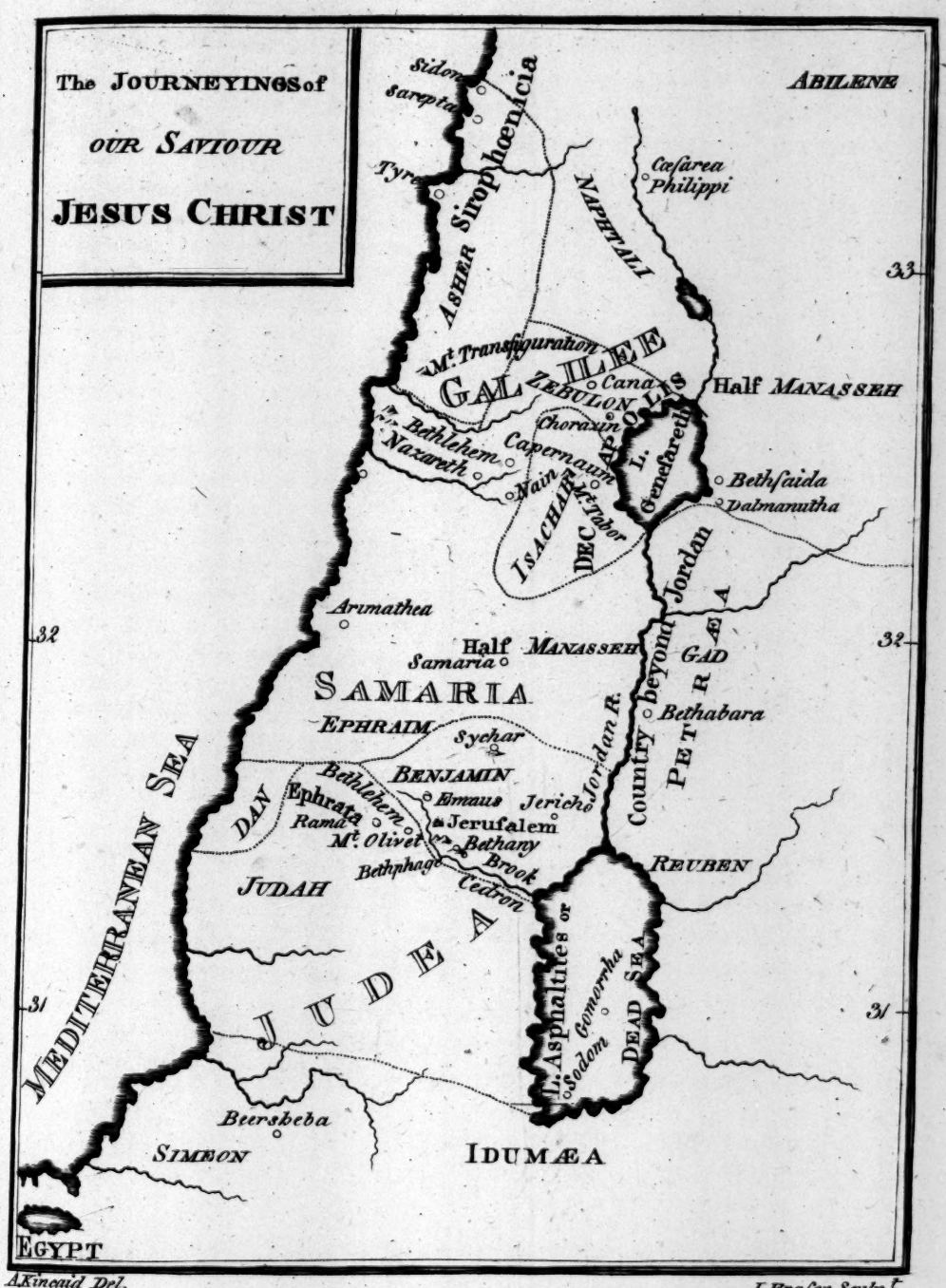
Notwithſtanding the deſert and barren ſituation of Palmyra, it is certain, that it was formerly the capital of a great empire, and that it was the emporium of the eaſt; the Palmyrenian merchants trading with the Romans and weſtern nations for all the rich ſpices and valuable commodities of Arabia and India. To this commerce it is moſt probable that it owed its magnificence, and its convenient ſituation, for this may perhaps account for its being built in the midſt of a ſandy deſert, where, without ſome ſuch adventitious aſſiſtance, a city would not have exiſted. Profane hiſtorians do not make any mention of it before the time of Mark Anthony; but it was greatly celebrated in the time of Odenatus, who flouriſhed in the time of Valerian, and fought many battles with the Perſians, in order to ſet that unhappy emperor at liberty. This prince was ſuch a favourite with the emperor Gallienus, that he even beſtowed upon him the title of Auguſtus; but his ſucceſſor Aurelian made war upon Zenobia the widow of Odenatus, carried her in triumph to Rome, maſſacred the principal nobility, and ruined the city of Palmyra itſelf; though he expended large ſums in repairing the temple of the ſun, the ruins of which are ſtill extant. Notwithſtanding theſe reparations, however, it is remarked, that the proportions of the columns at Palmyra are by no means ſo juſt as thoſe at Balbeck; and it is alſo remarkable, that there is not any inſcription at this place of older date than the Chriſtian æra; though there can be no doubt that many of the buildings are of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome attempts to reſtore Palmyra to its priſtine glory, but in vain. At preſent ſome of the wild Arabs dwell among the ruins, whoſe huts form an odd contraſt with theſe magnificent ſtructures already mentioned.

The curioſities of the city of Jeruſalem, though ſo often deſcribed, particularly by modern travellers, conſiſt only in the fictions of prieſts and monks, who pretend to determine with the utmoſt exactneſs all thoſe

places

places mentioned in ſcripture, in which our Saviour was any way concerned; but as the whole city has been ſo often deſtroyed by different enemies, and rebuilt afterwards, it is utterly impoſſible that there can now be any certainty with regard to theſe matters. The lake Aſphaltites, or the Dead Sea, may undoubtedly be conſidered as the greateſt curioſity in Paleſtine. Mr Thomſon informs us, that the ground, even at the diſtance of ſome leagues from it, is covered with a whitiſh ſaline efflorescence; but when they came near, they found it very uneven, and full of little hills and cavities; the latter, according to Mr Maundrell's deſcription, being like the places which in our country have been the ſituation of lime kilns. Theſe cavities are with great probability ſuppoſed to be produced by volcanic eruptions, which is confirmed by the way in which it is ſaid that bitumen is raiſed in this lake, viz. in large hemiſpheres, which, as ſoon as they come in contact with the air, burſt with a violent exploſion; but this is to be underſtood only of ſuch as are near the ſides; for in the internal parts the eruptions are diſcovered only by columns of ſmoke now and then ariſing from the ſurface of the water. On the very brink of the lake Mr Thomſon found great numbers of what he calls "ſmall black pebbles, which are ſoon ſet on fire by being held in the flame of a candle, and yield a ſmoke intolerably ſtinking and offenſive; but have this remarkable property, that by burning they loſe nothing of their weight, nor ſuffer any diminution in their bulk. They are capable of taking as fine a poliſh as black marble, and are likewiſe ſaid to be met with of a conſiderable ſize in the neighbouring mountains. The water is very clear, but extremely ſalt, having beſides a bitter and nauſeous taſte; and it has been ſaid, that no fiſh can live in it; though ſome diſpute the truth of this, from having obſerved ſome ſhells like oyſters lying along the ſhore. The extreme ſaltneſs of the water makes it likewiſe very eaſy to ſwim in; its great ſpecific gravity buoying up the body in a ſurpriſing manner. A report that birds could not fly over it was currently believed ſome time ago, but our author informs us, that he had occular demonſtration of the falſity of this. It is generally believed alſo, that the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah ſtood in the place where this lake now is; but of this we cannot have any certainty, and the ingenious Dr Reland has given ſtrong reaſons for believing the contrary; but we cannot enter into diſputes of that kind. This lake is about 70 miles in length, and 18 or 20 in breadth; receiving the river Jordan without any viſible outlet, the whole water conveyed by that river being probably diſſipated by the heat of the ſun.

Our author, when at Jeruſalem, was ſhewn ſome artificial caverns, called the *Sepulchres of the kings*, though of what kings we are not told; but the whole, he ſays, appear to be the works of ſuch expence and labour, that they may reaſonably be ſuppoſed to have been the work of kings. The entrance, which is cut out of the rock, faces the eaſt, and admits one into an open court about 40 paces ſquare, hollowed out of the ſame rock, with which it is encompaſſed inſtead of walls; and on the ſouth ſide is a portico, eight yards long and four broad, hewn out of the rock likewiſe. This portico has a kind of architrave in front, once adorned with ſculptures of flowers and fruit, but now defaced; and at the end of it we deſcend on the left-hand towards the ſepulchres. After croſſing through a paſſage almoſt choaked up with rubbiſh, we come to a room ſeven or eight yards ſquare, cut out of



A. Kincaid Del.

J. Fraser Sculp.t

the rock like the former, with ſurpriſing exactneſs and regularity. From this we paſs into ſix rooms more, all wrought in the ſame manner, only that there is a deſcent of ſome ſteps in going into the two laſt. In all of theſe rooms, except the firſt, there are niches for receiving the dead, of which there are ſome remains in ſtone coffins, but none of them entire. There was only one door remaining, which was a ſtone of about ſix inches thick, and the ſize of an ordinary door, carved in ſuch a manner as to reſemble two pannels of wainſcot. It was of the ſame kind with the reſt of the rock, and turned upon axles of ſtone of the ſame piece with the rock itſelf, one at the top, and the other at the bottom. The apparent impoſſibility of hanging a door in this manner, in the ſolid rock, has cauſed the generality imagine that they had been cut out of the rock itſelf in the ſame ſtate in which they now are; "but, ſays Mr Thomſon, by conſidering the hinges of thoſe that are thrown down, the uppermoſt whereof are twice as long as the lower ones, and examining nicely into that which is now hanging, we may reaſonably conclude that theſe doors, like others, were cut and faſhioned before they were brought and fixed in their intended ſtations." Beſides theſe antiquities already mentioned, there is ſcarce a city in Aſiatic Turkey which is not remarkable for ſome magnificent ruin or other; but of theſe our limits will not allow us to give any detail, nor would the acount without proper engravings be at all entertaining.

Principal Cities, &c. Aleppo, now the capital of Syria, ſtill preſerves a very conſiderable rank as a city, being ſuperior in its extent and buildings to moſt others in the eaſt. It is about ſeven miles in circumference, and ſtands upon eight ſmall hills, having a caſtle erected on the moſt conſiderable of them, which is of a conical form, and ſeems indeed to have been in a great meaſure the work of art, and raiſed by the earth thrown out of the ditch which ſurrounds it. The city is ſurrounded by an old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places obliterated, and even turned into gardens. The houſes are all built of ſtone, the apartments ranged on the ſides of a ſquare court. They conſiſt of a ground ſtory generally arched, and an upper one flat on the roof, and either terraced with plaſter, or paved with ſtone. The cielings are of wood, neatly painted, and ſometimes gilded, as are alſo the window-ſhutters, the pannels of ſome of their rooms, the cup-board doors, all which taken together, have a very agreeable effect. Paſſages out of the Koran are inſcribed over the doors and windows of the houſes belonging to the Turks in the inſide; and the Chriſtians have theirs in like manner inſcribed with paſſages of ſcripture. Every houſe has a court-yard, neatly paved, and they generally have a baſon with a jet d'eau in the middle, on one or both of which a ſmall ſpot is left unpaved for a garden, which though frequently not exceeding a yard or two ſquare, would be a very agreeable ſight to paſſengers, but they are effectually debarred from it by double doors, and there are no windows to the ſtreet but a very few in the upper ſtories. In moſt of the better ſort of houſes, there is an arched alcove oppoſite to the fountain, and open to the north; the pavement of the alcove being raiſed about a foot and an half above that of the court. The pavement between the alcove and fountain is generally done with moſaic work of differently coloured marble, as is alſo the floor of a large hall with a cupola roof, which has likewiſe a fountain in the middle, and is in ſummer almoſt the only place in the houſe where the heat is tolerable. The ſtreets are generally narrow,

but well paved, and kept very clean; and the city is well ſupplied with water, by ſome ſprings near the banks of the river Haylan, about five miles diſtant, the water of which is conveyed in an aqueduct, and diſtributed to different parts of the town by earthen pipes. This aqueduct is ſaid to have been the work of the empreſs Helena; but beſides the water brought into the city in this manner, each houſe has a well, tho' the water of it is brackiſh, and therefore anſwers no other purpoſe than to waſh the court yard, &c. The river Coic paſſes along the weſtern ſide of the city, within a few yards of the walls, and ſerves to water a narrow ſlip of gardens upon its banks, reaching from five miles above to three miles below the city. The riſing grounds to which the water cannot be conveyed, are in ſome places laid out in vineyards, interſperſed with olive, fig, and piſtachio trees; but excepting along the banks of this river, the villages for a great way round are deſtitute of trees, and only ſupplied by rain-water, which they preſerve in ciſterns. Throughout all Syria indeed, there is but one river, viz. the Orontes, which, having its riſe on the land-ſide of the high mountains, is able to find its way to the ſea; the reſt being all abſorbed by the thirſty ground through which they paſs, or evaporated by the intenſe heat of the ſun; and even the Orontes, from theſe cauſes, ſeems as large a ſtream, many miles above Antioch, as where it empties itſelf into the Mediterranean, notwithſtanding that it receives ſeveral conſiderable ſupplies by the way. By reaſon of the heat in this place, as well in as many others of the eaſt, it is cuſtomary to ſleep in the open air, which alſo may be accounted the reaſon that the moſt early inhabitants of theſe countries were ſo well and ſo ſoon acquainted with aſtronomy.

Bagdad, formerly the capital of the empire of the Caliphs, is ſuppoſed be ſituated at no great diſtance from the place where ancient Babylon ſtood. It is ſituated on the river Tigris, along the eaſt ſide of which it extends two or three miles. It is of an oblong and very irregular ſquare figure, and fortified with high and thick walls, conſtructed of brick, and has a citadel; the whole defended by 200 pieces of cannon, and garriſoned with 10,000 men. The houſes in general are alſo conſtructed of bricks cemented together, and arched over to admit the air more freely. Moſt of them have court yards as in Aleppo, but with a ſmall plantation of orange trees in each. The number of houſes is computed at 80,000, each of which pays a certain tax to the baſhaw, amounting in all to a revenue of no leſs than L. 300,000. It is a place of conſiderable trade, and the bazars or market-places are tolerably handſome, containing about 12,000 ſhops, filled with all kinds of merchandiſe. Theſe, as well as the bagnios, and almoſt every thing worthy of notice in the city, are the works of the Perſians. The caſtle, which ſtands at the north-weſt corner of the city, is built of white ſtone, and defended by cannon; but theſe are in a very bad condition, inſomuch, that about 11 years ago there was not one of them ſuppoſed to be in a condition to ſupport a diſcharge. In the time of the caliphs, the inhabitants of Bagdad were remarkable for the purity of their dialect.

Jeruſalem, though now in a ſtate of great decay, is ſtill accounted the capital of Paleſtine, and is much reſorted to, both out curioſity and devotion. It ſtands about 30 miles to the eaſtward of the Mediterranean, on a rocky mountain, the aſcent of which is ſteep on every ſide, excepting towards the north; the mountain on which it

ſtands

ſtands being every where ſurrounded by a deep valley, and this again encompaſſed by hills, which thus form a kind of amphitheatre, having the city in the midſt of it. The fortifications of the city are now but ſlender, and it has a ditch of no great conſequence, only upon one ſide. It has ſix gates, viz. thoſe of Bethlehem, Mount Sion, the Dung Gate, the gates of St Stephen, Herod, and Damaſcus. There is another, called the Golden Gate, which is walled up, becauſe of a prophecy which the Turks have among them, that by this gate the Chriſtians are to take Jeruſalem. It is not above three miles in circumference; the houſes are mean, and the ſtreets narrow and full of ruins, and the whole ſo thinly inhabited, that there is much waſte ground within the walls. The town does not now ſtand on the ſame ſpot with the ancient Jeruſalem; for Mount Calvary, a ſmall eminence on the greater part of Mount Moriah, and formerly ſet apart for the execution of malefactors, was ſhut out without the gates as a polluted place; but has been ſo much reverenced by Chriſtians, that the city is by that means built round it, and it is now nearly in the middle of the city; while on the contrary, Mount Sion is in great part left out. There are ſcarce any remains of it in its ancient ſtate, or even as it was rebuilt by the emperor Adrian. Its ſituation is ſuch, that no diſtant view of it can be had; that from the Mount of Olives being the beſt, and even that is very near. It has been alledged by travellers, that the whole country of Paleſtine is now ſo much degenerated from its former character of being a land flowing with milk and honey, that it is one of the moſt barren ſpots in the world; but this has been diſproved by the late Dr Shaw of Oxford. According to him, if Paleſtine were duly cultivated as formerly, it would be more fertile than the beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia; the ſoil being generally much richer, and larger crops produced in proportion. "The barrenneſs, therefore, ſays he, which ſome complain of, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of its ſoil, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who poſſeſs this fine country." Such is the wretched ſituation of Paleſtine at preſent, that another traveller, Mr Wood, informs us, that he has frequently ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, in company with an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed. In this ſituation we may readily believe, that after the grain is ſowed, it muſt be very uncertain who ſhall reap the crop.

The ancient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ſtill retain ſome marks of their priſtine grandeur. Damaſcus is yet famous for its ſteel, and manufactures of ſword-blades, knives, &c. and likewiſe for thoſe beautiful ſilks called damaſks. They alſo have a conſiderable traffic in other kinds of ſilks; and diſtill great quantities of roſe water from thoſe flowers, which grow in great abundance and perfection about the city. Sidon is ſtill a populous city, though little of its former grandeur now remains. Many beautiful pillars, and other veſtiges of magnificence, are ſtill to be met with in the neighbouring country, or in the gardens. The walls are conſiderably thick, but in a ruinous ſituation; and there is an old caſtle, ſaid to have been built by Louis IX. of France, commonly called St Louis. It is the ſeat of a baſhaw, who reſides in an old unfiniſhed palace. The exports are oil, aſhes, ſoap, raiſins of Damaſcus, rice, glue, Turkey leather, and ſilk. The celebrated city of Tyre conſiſts only of a few miſerable huts inhabited by fiſhermen. "On the north

ſide, indeed, ſays Mr Thomſon, there is an old Turkiſh caſtle without any garriſon; but, if we except this one ſtructure, the whole exhibits nothing but a melancholy ſcene of ruin and deſolation; conſiſting of decayed and broken walls, fragments of pillars, pieces of antique marble, and heaps of rubbiſh. The eaſt end of a great church is yet ſtanding, which ſeems to have been the cathedral of Tyre in the Chriſtian times, when the place was an archbiſhop's See." Tyre was anciently famous for a purple dye, ſaid to have been extracted from a kind of ſhell fiſh found about the city; but Mr Bruce, after having ſought in vain for this fiſh, gives it as his opinion that it never exiſted, but that the Tyrians were acquainted with the uſe of cochineal, and choſe to conceal it under this pretext. It is certain, however, that the Tyrian colour was far ſuperior in durability to any that can now be prepared from that inſect; ſo that if the Tyrians had not a material ſuperior to ours, they muſt have greatly excelled us in point of ſkill.

Throughout all the Leſſer Aſia, or Natolia, the remains of ancient cities are ſtill viſible; and as this comprehends the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Peſidia, Pontus, Lycaonia, Cilicia, &c. there is no doubt that they are very numerous; but through the extreme averſion of the Turks to every kind of refinement or improvement in the polite arts, theſe cities are now almoſt entirely occupied by gardens, while, through their lazineſs in cultivating the ground, the country does not maintain one fourth of the inhabitants it might do, nor without ſome very extraordinary revolution is it probable that matters will ever be better. Perhaps the expulſion of the Turks entirely from Europe, and confining them to their Aſiatic territories, is the only way by which ſuch an event could be accompliſhed. Thus, when a multitude of new inhabitants were poured in upon the old ones, all would be obliged to exert themſelves in order to avoid ſtarving, and habits of induſtry might thus be introduced even among the indolent Turks, which would not eaſily be obliterated.

Commerce and Manufactures. Theſe are greatly inferior to what might be expected from the advantageous ſituation of this extenſive country. Neglecting all the profits which might be derived from their maritime commerce, and the fine ſituation of many of their ports, the Turks content themſelves with the manufacture of ſoap, leather, carpets, and cotton, their ſilk and dyeing drugs being procured with little trouble. They make no diſtant voyages, and have only a few coaſting veſſels throughout the whole extent of their Aſiatic coaſts, the royal navy lying upon the European ſide; hence their commodities are exported entirely, or moſtly ſo, in foreign bottoms.

Conſtitution and Government. This is repreſented as the moſt unnatural and abſurd ſcheme of deſpotiſm that can be imagined; though from ſome late accounts, it appears, that the Mahometan religion, bad as it is, is yet capable of moderating in ſome degree the power of deſpotiſm. There is indeed in this empire no ſuch thing as hereditary property; nevertheleſs, the rights of individuals, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconſiderable expence, may be rendered ſecure; and even Jews and Chriſtians are allowed to partake of this privilege; and ſo inviolable and ſacred is this law kept, that no inſtance has been found of any prince attempting to break through it. Indeed the ſultan knows very well that his power only depends on his obſervation of all the tenets of his religion, and the moment he ſhould tranſgreſs any of them,

them, he would become an Infidel, and no longer be the lawful ſovereign. By theſe, therefore, the civil privileges of the Turks are regulated, and the people may reſt in ſecurity as well as in other countries. The moſt implicit obedience is paid to every injunction of the Koran, and even the comments of the doctors upon it have the ſame validity with the text itſelf; nor dares any member of the community, however powerful, venture to infringe them. The Turkiſh ſubjects in Aſia are ſuppoſed to hold their poſſeſſions immediately from the Grand Signior, by a kind of military tenure; in conſequence of which, they are obliged to attend in the field with a conſiderable number of men; and while they do ſo, they think themſelves in a manner independent of his will; but it is not ſo with thoſe who have attained to the firſt dignities of the ſtate. They depend every moment for the enjoyment of their life and property on the will of the ſultan, and are frequently deprived of both without the leaſt intimation of guilt, or even knowing their fate till ſurpriſed by a viſit of the executioners commiſſioned to put an end to their lives The moſt conſiderable officers in the Turkiſh government are the Grand Vizir, or prime miniſter; the Chiaya, who is next in power; the Reis Effendi, or ſecretary of ſtate; and the Aga of the Janizaries. Of theſe officers, however, and indeed of the management of the whole Turkiſh government, we muſt have a ſtrange notion from the accounts given by lady Craven. "How the buſineſs of the nation goes on at all, ſays her ladyſhip, I cannot gueſs, for the cabinet is compoſed generally of ignorant mercenaries; the Vizir was a water carrier to Haſſan Bey, the Capitan Pacha, or high admiral; Haſſan himſelf was only a ſervant at Algiers. Places are obtained at the Porte by intrigue; each placeman, each ſultaneſs has her creatures, and plots for placing them; and Verſailles has not more intricate intrigue than the Porte. The vile low intrigues of the miniſters here are not to be imagined. The ſultan has the higheſt opinion of the ſenſe and courage of the Capitan Pacha; when he quits Conſtantinople the ſovereign thinks his capital in danger; but I find all ranks of people agree in his having introduced a better police for the town then hitherto exiſted. At a fire, ſome janizaries not having done their duty properly, he had four of them flung into it. He is always accompanied by a lion, who follows him like a dog. The other day he ſuffered him to accompany him to the divan; but the miniſters were ſo terrified, that ſome jumped out of the windows, one was near breaking his neck in flying down ſtairs, and the the high admiral and his lion were left to ſettle the councils of the day together." This device of keeping a tame lion, at the time that it evinces the courage of this officer, ſhews no leſs the dread that he has of his brother miniſters, and indeed ſeems to be the moſt effectual method of preventing thoſe ſudden and diſagreeable viſits to the great men in the Turkiſh empire. For though the executioners, or mutes, as they are called, would without the leaſt heſitation put a bow ſtring about the neck of an unarmed and unſuſpecting man, it is not to be doubted that the ſight of a lion at his feet, and ready to reſent any injury done to his maſter, would create ſuch apprehenſions as would give the unfortunate miniſter at leaſt a better chance of eſcaping than he could otherwiſe have had. Some apprehenſion of this kind has probably been the cauſe of his taking the lion to the divan; for the ſame lady informs us, that one Petraki, a Greek, a kind of banker to the court, having, by his frequent acceſs to the ſultan, excited the jealouſy of the miniſters, they obliged their ſove-

reign

reign to ſend an order for taking off his head, which he at laſt did with great reluctance, the tears ſtreaming down his cheeks while he ſigned it. From theſe accounts, it is eaſy to ſee that the adminiſtration of juſtice throughout the Turkiſh empire muſt be exceſſively corrupt. Every thing is managed by means of preſents, and the deciſion of the magiſtrate openly bought and ſold. Vaſt ſums, under that name, are extorted from the baſhaws and governors of provinces, while the latter endeavour to make themſelves amends by ſqueezing and oppreſſing the people they govern. The wealth they obtain by theſe methods, however, often proves fatal to the poſſeſſors; for no ſooner does the report arrive at court of any of theſe governors being poſſeſſed of conſiderable riches than they are accuſed of diſloyalty or diſaffection to government; the immediate conſequence of which is the ſending of an imperial decree in a ſummary manner to take off the perſon's head. This is received by the unfortunate wretch with the moſt perfect reſignation. He puts it on his hand; and, after he has read it, ſays, "The will of God and of the emperor be done!" or ſome ſuch expreſſion; then he takes the ſilken cord, which the officer has ready in his boſom, and having tied it about his own neck, he is thrown on the floor by the officer's ſervants, who ſoon diſpatch him, by drawing the cord ſtrait; after which his head is cut off and carried to court, and all his eſtate is confiſcated to the uſe of the ſultan.

Revenues. Theſe, as may eaſily be imagined, muſt be immenſe. The ſources from which they are derived are the cuſtoms, and a number of taxes, which are paid chiefly by the Chriſtians and others who do not profeſs Mahometaniſm. Such as are rich pay a capitation-tax of 30 ſhillings annually, and thoſe of an inferior claſs 15; even common labourers being obliged to pay ſix ſhillings and ten-pence half-penny annually. The tribute paid by the Tartars and other nations bordering on Turkey likewiſe forms another branch; but the greateſt part, and which cannot poſſibly be calculated, ariſes from the preſents to government already mentioned.

Forces. There are two kinds of militia in Turkey, one of which have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other receive their payment from the treaſury. The number of the former is not leſs than 268,000. There are likewiſe a great number of auxiliaries from different nations, particularly Walachia, Moldavia, Tartary, and till lately Georgia. The Khan of the Crim Tartars was likewiſe obliged to furniſh 100,000 men, whom he was to head in perſon; ſo that the loſs of this peninſula muſt be looked upon to be very conſiderable to the grand ſignior, as throwing ſuch a vaſt power into the hands of his natural enemies the Ruſſians. Beſides all theſe, they have great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own expence in expectation of promotion; and, on this expectation of an earthly reward, is joined that of an heavenly one alſo; for by their religion they are taught to believe, that if they die in battle with the Chriſtians, they ſhall infallibly be admitted into Paradiſe. The forces paid out of the treaſury are called *Spahis*, or horſeguards, and are about 12,000 in number; the janizaries, or foot-guards, are accounted the beſt in the Turkiſh ſervice, and thoſe on whom they principally depend in an engagement. There are about 100,000 foot ſoldiers diſperſed through the various provinces of the empire, who uſe all their intereſt to get themſelves enliſted in this body, whoſe privileges are very great, as not being obliged to own ſubjection to any one but their aga or commander in chief.

Imperial

Imperial Arms and Titles. The arms of the grand ſignior are vert, a creſcent argent creſted with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.* "Till it fill the whole world." Agreeable to this extravagant motto are the titles of this monarch; being ſtyled by his ſubjects, *The ſhadow of God; a God on earth; diſpoſer of all earthly crowns; brother to the ſun and moon, &c.*

Hiſtory. In our account of Turkey in Europe, we have given a hiſtory of the Turks, from the time of their firſt interference with the Greeks and Saracens, till the final overthrow of the Greek empire by them in 2453. Here we ſhall give an account of them previous to that time, and ſince they made that important conqueſt.

The firſt origin of the Turks, like that of moſt other nations, is obſcure and inexplicable. Their name is ſaid to have been derived from a famous leader among them, named *Turk*, who is even pretended to have been one of the ſons of the patriarch Japhet, though not mentioned in the Moſaic hiſtory. Their firſt habitation was about the mountains of Caucaſus, where they continued long unnoticed by other nations, and employing themſelves in making war upon each other, or thoſe who happened to be ſituated in their neighbourhood, like other barbarians, or like the wild beaſts of the deſart. At laſt, about the year 1030, Mohammed the ſon of Sambrael, Saracen ſultan of Perſia, finding himſelf overmatched by Piſaris ſultan of Babylon, with whom he was at war, applied to the Turks for aſſiſtance. By them he was furniſhed with 3000 men, under the conduct of one *Togrul Beg*, by the Greeks named Tangrolipix, a leading man among them, by whoſe aſſiſtance he got the better of his adverſary; but having then deſired leave to return home, it was denied him; upon which, the Turks having retired to a neighbouring deſart, where they were joined by numbers of diſcontented Perſians, began to make inroads into the ſultan's territories. An army of 20,000 men was immediately diſpatched by Mohammed againſt them; but being ſurpriſed and defeated, the fame of Tangrolipix became ſo great, that multitudes flocked to him from all quarters, and he ſoon ſaw himſelf at the head of an army of 50,000 men. Mohammed upon this marched againſt them in perſon; but being thrown from his horſe, and killed in the beginning of the engagement, his whole army ſubmitted to Tangrolipix.

Elated with this ſucceſs, the ſultan imagined that he might conquer the Saracens entirely, and for this purpoſe he ſent his nephew *Cutlu-Moſes* with an army againſt them. By theſe adverſaries, however, he was defeated, and having had occaſion afterwards to paſs through the territories of the Greek emperor, was obliged to encounter his forces, whom he defeated and took their general priſoner, as has been related in the hiſtory of Turkey in Europe. Thus the Turks came firſt to interfere with the Greeks. By ſerving the Saracens in the quality of mercenary ſoldiers, they came to embrace the doctrines of Mahomet, and at laſt to be more powerful than the people whom they were at firſt obliged to ſerve. Thus they made themſelves maſters of Syria, Paleſtine, and other provinces which the Saracens had formerly conquered; and being ſtill more rude and barbarous than they, treated the Chriſtians with ſuch cruelty, that the Cruſades were proclaimed againſt them, in order to recover the Holy Land, and put an end to their barbarities. The cauſe of the failure of theſe expeditions has been already related,

and

and indeed it does not appear that the Cruſaders were able to make ſuch an impreſſion upon their enemies as to check their conqueſts otherwiſe. Under their famous emperor Othman, or Ottoman, they conquered ſome of the fineſt provinces in Leſſer Aſia, fixing their capital at Nice in Bithynia, about the end of the 13th or beginning of the 14th century. By this emperor the nation was firſt embodied, or were diſtinguiſhed from a parcel of wandering ſavages; and ever ſince that time they have effected ſtile the empire that of Ottoman, rather than the Turkiſh empire; the term *Turk* being now uſed for a wanderer or baniſhed man, and conſequently an epithet of reproach.

After the reduction of Conſtantinople, all Greece quickly ſubmitted to the conqueror; and the Turks prepared for the reduction of the weſtern countries of Europe, but meeting with a vigorous oppoſition on that ſide, they turned their arms eaſtward againſt the Perſians. Selim the reigning ſultan, who, in order to aſcend the throne, had poiſoned his father, being alſo repulſed in his attempt, next projected the conqueſt of Egypt, which he reduced in 1517, as well as many places in Syria, which had not before ſubmitted to the Turkiſh government. Beſides the murder of his father, this ſultan likewiſe cauſed his elder brother Achmet to be ſtrangled, and deſtroyed many others of the royal blood. He did not, however, long enjoy theſe conqueſts, purchaſed by ſuch horrible deeds; for in 1520 he died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Solyman, ſurnamed the Magnificent. By him the iſland and city of Rhodes were reduced, after a moſt terrible ſiege; and he carried on almoſt continual wars with the Germans and Hungarians, and was generally ſucceſsful in them. From the latter he took the cities of Belgrade and Buda, and carried off at leaſt 200,000 captives. Two years afterwards he renewed the war, and advanced as far as Vienna, laying ſiege to that capital, but was fruſtrated in the attempt, as well as in an enterpriſe againſt the iſland of Malta. In 1566 he died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Selim II. in whoſe reign the Turkiſh power began to decline, and their naval force received an irretrievable blow at the battle of Lepanto, where they were ſo entirely defeated, that the conſequence might have been fatal had the blow been properly purſued. By neglecting this, however, they were ſuffered to retrieve their affairs, and afterwards extend their conqueſts in Africa, and reduce the iſland of Cyprus. In 1575 Selim was ſucceeded by his ſon Amurath III. who took the cities of Tauris, Teflis, and others from the Perſians, as alſo the important fortreſs of Raab in Hungary. Mahomet III. who ſucceeded in 1593, was unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians; ſo that the Ottoman empire now in a great meaſure ceaſed to be formidable. His reign is chiefly diſtinguiſhed, as indeed thoſe of too many of the Turkiſh princes have been, by his cruelty, in ordering 19 of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concubines, ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. Mahomet died of the plague in 1604, and was ſucceeded by Achmet. He carried on a war with the Perſians, in which he was far from being ſucceſsful, but maintained his ground againſt the Auſtrians, who, by a treaty in 1606 were obliged to allow him quietly to poſſeſs what he had conquered from them. Oſman his ſucceſſor, when only 16 years of age, having attempted to reduce the power of the janizaries, after an unſucceſsful war with Poland, was by them degraded and put to death. In 1623 Bagdad was taken from the Perſians by ſultan Morad; but during the reign of his ſucceſſor Ibrahim the empire ſeemed rather to decline. This

prince being ſtrangled by the janizaries in 1648, Mahomet IV. was raiſed to the throne. He was happy in having an excellent miniſter, named Cupreli, by whoſe good conduct Candia was taken from the Venetians, after it had been beſieged unſucceſsfully for 30 years. He was likewiſe very ſucceſsful in a war with the Imperialiſts, and proceeded ſo far as to lay ſiege to Vienna; but was at laſt entirely defeated by John Soboieſki king of Poland, as has been related in the hiſtory of that country. In 1687 he was depoſed and impriſoned by his own ſubjects, and his brother Solyman raiſed to the throne. The Turkiſh arms, however, ſtill proved unſucceſsful, as well as during the reign of Achmet II. In the time of Muſtapha II. matters went ſtill worſe; for though the ſultan headed his armies in perſon, yet, having to do with ſuch an experienced commander as prince Eugene, he was by him entirely defeated, and obliged to conclude a very diſadvantageous peace in 1699; ſoon after which the ſultan was depoſed, the mufti beheaded, and Achmet III. raiſed to the Imperial dignity. The reign of this prince is remarkable for having given ſhelter to Charles XII. of Sweden after his defeat at Poltowa, and the many efforts made by that hero to excite a war with Ruſſia; hoping that, being entruſted with the command of an army, he ſhould have the ſatisfaction of triumphing over his greateſt enemy the Czar Peter. The war was at length commenced according to his wiſh, and an opportunity offered of taking priſoners the Czar and his whole army. Thus the Ruſſians would have been effectually humbled; and ſince that time the Turkiſh monarchs have had ſufficient reaſon to repent that ſo favourable an opportunity was loſt. This was accompliſhed by the dexterity of the Czarina, who bribed the grand vizir with all the money, plate, and jewels in the army, to allow them to depart; engaging alſo to deliver up the fort of Aſoph and ſome others to the Turks, and to evacuate Poland. This impolitic tranſaction was followed by a war with the Venetians, and afterwards with the Germans and Hungarians. In this the Turks had once more to encounter prince Eugene, by whom they were completely defeated, and obliged to conclude a diſhonourable peace at Paſſarowitz in 1718. A war with Perſia ſucceeded, in which the Turkiſh arms were attended with no better ſucceſs; and this, as uſual, terminated in a revolution, in which the ſultan was depoſed, the grand vizir beheaded, as well as the high admiral and chief ſecretary. Mahomet V. was not more ſucceſsful againſt Khouli Khan, whom he was obliged at laſt to acknowledge as ſovereign of Perſia. After this he engaged in a war with the Imperialiſts and Ruſſians; and now, for the firſt time, the Turks began to feel the force of the Ruſſian arms. Being preſſed by them in ſuch a manner as to be in danger of loſing his capital itſelf, the emperor was obliged haſtily to conclude a treaty with the Germans, and afterwards another with the Ruſſians, greatly to his advantage.

Mahomet V. dying in 1754, was ſucceeded by his brother Oſman, and he by Muſtapha III. in whoſe reign commenced the late memorable war with Ruſſia. This originated, as we have already remarked, in conſequence of the inteſtine commotions in Poland; the Turks favouring the Catholic party, in ſuch a manner, as at laſt to bring down the moſt dreadful vengeance on themſelves. It is not conſiſtent with our limits to give an account of the many exploits performed on both ſides. Suffice it to ſay, that the Turks were every where defeated without almoſt a ſingle inſtance of ſucceſs; the Ruſſians advanced by land, and their

fleets entering the Mediterranean, ravaged their coaſts by ſea. After many bloody encounters, in which the Ruſſians were conſtantly victorious, the matter was decided by the deſertion of no fewer than 140,000 of the grand vizir's troops. Thus he was left, with 60,000 men, to face general Romanzow with an army, by whom, though he had had his complete number, he would in all probability have been defeated. In this deplorable ſituation the wretched vizir had no other reſource but in ſubmitting to the greateſt humiliation poſſible for a general, viz. that of ſigning ſuch terms as his adverſary was pleaſed to dictate. So great was the panic which at this time ſeized the Turkiſh army, that the mufti, who has the only power of making war or peace, on hearing what had happened, expreſſed himſelf in the following terms. "Since our troops will no longer fight the Ruſſians, there is a neceſſity for making peace."

As this was the firſt time in which the naval powers of the Turks and Ruſſians were ſet in competition, we ſhall be ſomewhat more particular in our account of the naval tranſactions than of thoſe by land. The fleet having arrived in the Mediterranean, left Minorca in the beginning of February 1770, from whence it proceeded directly towards the Morea. The forces were debarked by count Orlow, the Ruſſian general, about 50 miles to the ſouthward of Miſithra, the ancient Sparta. They were inſtantly joined by great numbers of Greeks, whoſe averſion to the tyranny of the Turks was extreme. Theſe allies every where overrun the country, and ſlaughtered the Turks without mercy, till at laſt an end was put to their cruelties by the baſha of Boſnia, who entered the country with an army of 30,000 men. The Ruſſians were now driven to their ſhips, and the Greeks ſlaughtered in their turn, when the fortune of war was again rendered doubtful by the arrival of admiral Elphinſtone, with a reinforcement to the fleet of count Orlow. The Turkiſh fleet having appeared off the coaſt of Natolia, a fierce engagement enſued between ſuch ſhips as could get ſufficiently near to each other. The Turkiſh fleet was more numerous than that of Ruſſia; but the reſolution and ſkill of the officers who commanded the latter made up the deficiency. Admiral Spiritoff engaged the Captain Pacha in a ſhip of 90 guns; and both ſides having fought for ſome time with the utmoſt fury, at as ſhort a diſtance as was conſiſtent in maritime engagements, they at laſt run cloſe together, and then deſperately faſtened their ſhips to each other, ſo that there was no poſſibility of eſcaping ſhould any of them take fire. This at laſt was the caſe. The Ruſſians threw in ſuch numbers of hand-grenadoes into the Turkiſh ſhip as ſet her on fire, and both ſoon after blew up with a dreadful exploſion. Moſt of the common ſailors on both ſides were killed, but the commanders were ſaved; a dreadful pauſe enſued for a ſhort time; even the fury of theſe inveterate adverſaries being ſuſpended by ſuch a ſhocking accident. This, however, did not put an end to the engagement; it was renewed with the utmoſt obſtinacy, and continued till night, when the Turks took ſhelter in a bay on the coaſt of Natolia. Here they were ſurrounded by the Ruſſians; and in the night time ſome fire-ſhips were conveyed in among them, chiefly by the conduct and courage of one lieutenant Dugdale an Engliſhman; who, after being abandoned by his crew, took upon himſelf the dangerous taſk of guiding them in. This operation was moſt ſucceſsful; for in a few hours the whole fleet were deſtroyed, excepting one man of war and a few gallies, which the Ruſſians towed

towed off. They then entered the harbour, and ſo effectually bombarded the town and caſtle adjacent, that by the evening not a veſtige of either was to be ſeen.

Towards the end of this unfortunate war, the emperor Muſtapha III. died, leaving a ſon only 13 years of age; but his father, imagining that he was incapable of taking upon him the management of the affairs of the empire in ſuch a dangerous criſis, beſtowed the government upon his brother Achmet IV. who ſtill continues to enjoy the throne. Peace was concluded a few months after his acceſſion, but upon ſuch humiliating terms as could not fail to be very diſagreeable to the Turks in general. Among theſe were the ceſſion of the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, whoſe khan is related to the preſent Imperial family of Turkey, and is even the neareſt collateral branch deſcended from the great Othman, or Ottoman himſelf; ſo that ſhould the preſent reigning family happen to be extinct, that of the khan of the Crimea would ſucceed. On the other hand, as this country is of conſiderable value to Ruſſia, and its acquiſition is a principal glory of the preſent empreſs's reign, the parting with it again would be reckoned an indelible diſgrace. Hence both parties being engaged to preſerve this country, a new war has now taken place about it. The bad ſucceſs of the Turks in the laſt war, made it generally apprehended that they would ſoon be reduced to extremities by ſuch a formidable adverſary. Such an acceſſion of power to the empreſs of Ruſſia, already too ſtrong for any other European ſtate, alarmed ſome of the reſt, and probably induced Sweden to take the oppoſite ſide. The little eſtimation in which this power has been held ſince the time of Charles XII. made it likewiſe apprehended that the fate of Sweden was faſt approaching. Neither of theſe events, however, have taken place. The Turks, though attacked alſo by the emperor of Germany, ſeemingly without any provocation, have maintained their ground much better than they did laſt war againſt the Ruſſians alone. In the former war the empreſs was aſſiſted conſiderably by Great Britain; but the coolneſs which has for ſome time ſubſiſted between the courts of Peterſburg and London renders it very improbable that any ſuch aſſiſtance will now be given. On the other hand, the ſituation of France muſt in all human probability render it impoſſible for that power to give any kind of underhand aſſiſtance to the Turks, which likewiſe was done in the laſt war; ſo that the three greateſt empires in Europe, perhaps in the world, will now have an opportunity of trying their ſtrength without any interference of the reſt. It is natural to ſuppoſe that the Turks ſhould be unable to contend with Ruſſia and Germany at once; but we muſt conſider, that the two latter are *invaders*, and the Turks have a vaſt advantage in fighting at home. The travelling through immenſe tracts of an hoſtile country has always been found to waſte and diminiſh extremely the numbers of the fineſt armies, even though no enemy approached them. We have little reaſon to ſuppoſe that any thing deciſive can yet be accompliſhed againſt the Turkiſh empire. Superior valour may indeed perform many brilliant exploits; but all that can be done in the way of fighting pitched battles, ſtorming towns, &c. will avail but little, where unwholeſome air, or infectious diſeaſes render a victorious campaign more ruinous than the moſt diſgraceful defeats. Such has already been the caſe in part with the Imperial army, where the taking of Belgrade has been much more than compenſated by the loſs of 70,000 men cut off by diſeaſes; an

expence of human life, which is at once ſhocking to our natural feelings, and unſupportable, if continued, by the moſt powerful nation in Europe.

Of late the king of Pruſſia has augmented his army, and made every preparation for taking the field. An alliance has alſo been concluded between Great Britain, Pruſſia, and the States of Holland; and it is ſtrongly ſuſpected Sweden is included, although not made public. If all thoſe powers ſhould join in one head, and with one view, as has been generally ſuppoſed they will, the Czarina and Emperor muſt undoubtedly ſet bounds to their conqueſts.

NEW ACQUISITIONS of the EMPRESS of RUSSIA in EUROPE and ASIA.

THESE, which were obtained in conſequence of the peace in 1774, conſiſt of the peninſula of Crim Tartary, with ſome conſiderable tracts of territory about the weſtern parts of Mount Caucaſus, and which till very lately have not been explored by any European travellers.

Crim Tartary, or the Peninſula of the Crimea, the ancient Cherſoneſus Taurica, is bounded on the ſouth and weſt ſides by the Euxine ſea; and on the eaſt and north-eaſt by that of Aſoph. On the north it is joined to the continent by a narrow neck of land, on which ſtands the fortreſs of Precop, or Perecop. On the eaſt ſide there is a ſmaller peninſula, of a ſhape perhaps not to be equalled any where in the world, being hardly an 100 Ruſſian werſts in length, and in ſome places not above three or four in breadth. It is divided into two parts by a ridge of mountains, which run acroſs it almoſt in an eaſt and weſt direction; and the ſoil was anciently celebrated for its extraordinary fertility; nor was the coaſt leſs diſtinguiſhed for its commercial advantages; but at preſent the northern diviſion is poor, and only fit for paſturage. This may perhaps be owing in a great meaſure to its being a flat country, and expoſed to violent winds, from which the ſouthern parts are ſheltered by the mountains already mentioned. The vallies in theſe parts are ſurpriſingly fruitful, enjoying all the advantages of a fine climate, the peninſula lying between 45°-36′ and 46°-35′ north latitude, and between 35° 4′ and 35-40 eaſt longitude. But though the ſoil, if properly cultivated, would produce every neceſſary and luxury of life, we are not to expect any ſuch thing from its preſent inhabitants, who are ſtill more averſe to induſtry than the Turks, ſubſiſting by paſturage, milk, cheeſe, the fleſh of their cattle, and particularly of horſes. Many cities were built on this peninſula by the Greeks, particularly thoſe of Kherſon, Theodoſia, Panticapeum, and ſome others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities on the continent. It is probable, however, that the modern towns of this country, of which there are a conſiderable number, are not ſituated exactly in the ſame places with thoſe built by the Greeks. Eupatoria, now Koſleo, is but at a ſmall diſtance from the ſeat of the ancient Eupatorium, if not exactly in the ſame ſpot; and Sebaſtopool ſtands but a very little way from the Kherſon of the Greeks; the ruins of which laſt are ſtill extant. Strabo mentions a place, named Portus Symbolon, which is probably the ſame with that named *Symbol* by the Genoeſe, and in more modern times *Balylava*. Kertſh is the Boſphorus of the ancients, and Janikale their Panticapeum;

Sudak

Sudak is their Soldaia, and Theodoſia, lately called Caffa, has now received its ancient appellation of Theodoſia again.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in the Crimea are thoſe of Karaſu and Salagir, both which, taking an eaſterly courſe, and uniting their ſtreams at the diſtance of ſomewhat more than 20 werſts from the ſea, run into the gulf of the ſea of Aſoph, which is interpoſed between the main land of Crimea and the long narrow peninſula already mentioned. On the ſouth-weſtern part there are ſeveral ſtreams, but none ſo conſiderable as thoſe juſt mentioned; and there are not wanting ſome, both of this and the northern part, which fall into lakes from whence they have no apparent outlet. The ſource of the Karaſu is undoubtedly a curioſity, and was viſited by lady Craven in 1786. It is ſituated among rocks, in a very romantic manner, and riſes in a conſiderable ſtream. One of the rocks has a ſurpriſing perforation quite through it, ſomewhat reſembling a huge irregular gate. In approaching to the ſource of this river, there is not any very great difficulty, though the aſcent is ſomewhat ſteep.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but very ſlight deſcriptions; and indeed where the country has ſo often been the ſeat of war, and the inhabitants are ſtill ſo rude, very little can be expected from their buildings. Lady Craven, who, without doubt, had acceſs to the beſt lodgings in the country, informs us, that "a Tartar's houſe is a very ſlight building of only one ſtorey, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cuſhions are ranged round the room for ſeats; but what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the ſpace of the room, behind the wainſcot, which draws back in moſt places; ſo that in a place where the room appears exceedingly ſmall and confined, there is yet every conveniency to be met with. A Tartar houſe has always another building, at a ſmall diſtance from it, for the convenience of travellers or ſtrangers, whom the noble Tartar always treats with the greateſt hoſpitality. The palace of the khan at Bacziſeria is an irregular building; the greateſt part of it is of one floor, raiſed upon pillars of wood, arched and gilt in a fanciful and lively manner; the arch, or laſt door-way, is finely proportioned, and is adorned with an inſcription in letters of gold. The whole was entirely in ruins, but the governor cauſed it to be repaired, and new gilt and painted for the reception of the empreſs. Court within court, and garden within garden, make a variety of apartments, where the khan walked from his own reſidence to the harem, which is ſpacious and higher than the reſt of the buildings. Several of the ſquare places under his apartment were paved with marble, and have in the centre fountains which play conſtantly.

Among the curioſities of this country, we may reckon the ſource of the river Karaſu already mentioned, as well as the lakes which receive the rivulets without any viſible outlet. Lady Craven mentions a houſe near Sebaſtopool, ſituated in a very romantic manner at the foot of ſome rocks, from which iſſue many clear ſprings, that amply ſupply the houſes and baths with water. On the ſummit of theſe rocks, there are places where immenſe cables have certainly paſſed and been tied. The Tartars inſiſt that the ſea once was cloſe to the foot of them, and ſhips were faſtened there. Near Bacziſeria there is a mine of earth, exactly like ſoap, which is reckoned very good for the ſkin, and vaſt quantities of it are conſumed by the women at Conſtantinople. Throughout the whole country there are great numbers of peach-trees, which being

nipped

nipped by the ſheep when very young, degenerate into ſmall buſhes, covering the ground with a ſmall net like flower ſpreading all over the ſurface. Lady Craven beſtows the greateſt encomiums on the ſheep, which in this peninſula are innumerable, and afford the moſt beautiful and coſtly fleeces. The ſheep are all ſpotted; the lambkins very beautiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their ſkins have ſmall ſpots, and are ſmooth like the fineſt and lighteſt ſattins. Coats lined with theſe ſkins are called Peliſſes; and as a great number of theſe ſmall animals muſt be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the fineſt preſents the empreſs can make to an ambaſſador. Throughout the whole of this peninſula, there are many ruins of ancient towns. Lady Craven mentions one at Soudak, which was rebuilt by the Genoeſe on the deſcent of ſteep rocks. The ſummit of theſe overlooks the ſea; and here there is a chapel, with a granite pillar ſituated in ſuch a manner, that on the firſt ſhake it muſt fall perpendicularly into it. This town muſt have been inacceſſible to a fleet, and extremely well defended from the attacks of thoſe who dwell in the interior parts of the country.

The peninſula of the Crimea has a conſiderable trade in what is called Morocco leather of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like ſattin. At Bacziſeria there is a great trade of ſword-blades, knives, and hangers, many of which are not to be diſtinguiſhed from ſuch as are made at Damaſcus. On the ſouthern part of the peninſula, vines are cultivated, but only a few people have vineyards of their own, and there is little good wine made; but lady Craven informs us that there is a Frenchman who diſtils brandy in great quantities.

The Crimea, as has already been mentioned, was firſt poſſeſſed by the Greeks, who about 450 B. C. became tributary to the Scythians. In this dependent ſituation they continued till the time of Mithridates king of Pontus, whom they invited to take poſſeſſion of their country. On the defeat of that monarch by Pompey, they became tributary to the Romans, and continued ſo till the time of Valerian, when the petty princes among whom the country was divided, ſided with the barbarians, ſo far as to admit the Goths through their territories to invade thoſe of the Romans. The importance of the country was conſiderably augmented by the removal of the imperial ſeat to Conſtantinople, which made a great addition to the trade of the maritime parts; but by reaſon of its vicinity to the barbarous nations, it was found impoſſible to protect it againſt their ravages; and the Goths made a permanent ſettlement in the mountains to the ſouthward. Towards the end of the eleventh century, the Genoeſe eſtabliſhed themſelves here, and reduced the town of Caffa, which they kept till the year 1297, when it was taken from them by the Venetians, but ſoon after recovered. The Genoeſe were treated with great kindneſs by the Tartar Khans, who allowed them the poſſeſſion of a number of ſea ports; the Armenian princes alſo, whoſe territories in the 13th century extended as far as the Caſpian Sea, favoured them ſo much, that they obtained poſſeſſion of the whole trade of the Eaſt. The Turks for a long time endeavoured in vain to prejudice the Khans of Tartary againſt theſe trades, but at laſt, provoked by their arrogance, they turned their arms againſt them, and by the year 1474, all their poſſeſſions were loſt; Caffa, the laſt of them, being beſieged and taken by the Turks that ſame year.

The Tartars, by whom the Genoeſe were expelled, had been ſettled in

in the Crimea more than two centuries before this event took place; and before the death of Tamerlane, they had been ſubject to the kingdom of Caſan. In the year 1400, on the death of that conqueror, the peninſula was ſeized by Edegai Khan one of his officers, in whoſe family the ſovereignty continued till 1783, when a Ruſſian army, under the command of an officer named Potemkin, took poſſeſſion of it. At preſent the number of inhabitants in Crimea is ſuppoſed not to exceed 70,000; though vaſt numbers have undoubtedly periſhed in their civil contentions, and in defence of their country againſt the Ruſſians; many alſo having emigrated from a diſlike to the Ruſſian government.

The mountains of Caucaſus begin at a ſmall diſtance from the iſland of Phanagoria, lying on the eaſt ſide of the Boſphorus. Hence they extend quiet to the Caſpian Sea, having ſeveral ridges proceeding from their ſouthern ſide, formerly known by the names of the Moſchic or Pariedrian mountains, and on the northern ſide is a ſingle chain ſuppoſed to anſwer to the Hippic Mountains of Ptolemy; but now known by the name of *Beſh-tau*, i. e. the Five Mountains. This country was formerly inhabited by a number of different nations; among whom was a certain people, named the *Suani* or *Soanes*, ſuppoſed to be the anceſtors of the preſent inhabitants. Theſe were formerly a great and powerful nation, but their deſcendants are poor and ſimple, ſubſiſting by feeding of cattle, with ſome little application to agriculture; ſpeaking a corrupt dialect of the Georgian language, and being in ſubjection to the prince of Imeretia. The ancient Suani, we are told, were wont to collect the gold waſhed down from the mountains, by placing fleeces of wool in the ſtreams, from which practice Strabo derives the fable of the Golden Fleece, and it is alſo reported that this practice continued among the natives of Mingrelia, even after the Turks were poſſeſſed of that country.

The country of the Suani was bounded by the river Dioſcurias, now Iſagour, where began that of Colchis. It was remarkable for the excellence of its honey, the fertility of its ſoil, and the delicious fruits it produced. Its inhabitants were ſaid to have been a colony of Egyptians, among other proofs of which, the excellence of its linen manufactures was adduced. Beſides the commodities above mentioned, it produced vaſt quantities of hemp, flax, wax, pitch, wood, and all other articles neceſſary for ſhip-building.

To the eaſtward of Colchis was Iberia, comprehending the preſent kingdom of Imeretia and ſome others. The inhabitants were numerous, peaceable, and inclined to agriculture. Beyond the river Alazonius to the Caſpian, the country was inhabited by the Albani, who appear to have been a ſimple and ignorant people; but the great fertility of their country, rendered labour almoſt unneceſſary, as it produced ſpontaneouſly all kinds of fruits, particularly grapes; and the luxuriant herbage afforded ſubſiſtence to ſuch vaſt herds of cattle, that they ſubſiſted in their indolent and inactive ſtate without the leaſt inconvenience. In the high mountains above the Albani, were the Lelegæ; beyond them the fabulous nations of the Amazons, with many others, none of whom were ever thoroughly conquered by the Romans, and many of them indeed ſcarcely known to them. After the eſtabliſhment of the Conſtantinopolitan empire, the countries we have been treating of became a frequent ſubject of diſpute betwixt the Greek and Perſian emperors; but ſo ill informed were the Greeks concerning the

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ſituation of them, that their accounts are quite unintelligible; and until the reign of the preſent empreſs of Ruſſia, there were no accounts to be depended upon, excepting thoſe of a few travellers, who caſually and haſtily paſſed through them. By order of her imperial majeſty, however, profeſſor Guldenſtaedt was ſent to explore the regions of Mount Caucaſus, to make aſtronomical obſervations, diſcover the various cuſtoms, manners, and languages of the natives, &c. and in ſhort, to make a claſſification of all the different nations between the Euxine and Caſpian Seas.

According to the reports of this traveller, there are, in the country we ſpeak of, the following nations.

1. Three tribes of Tartars, viz. The Terekemens, Turcomans, or Truckahmanians, the Coumyks and Nogays. The firſt inhabit the eaſtern ſlope of Mount Caucaſus, the coaſt of the Caſpian Sea about Boinak, Derbent, and Uterniſh; and the promontories to the ſouthward between the ſea and the river Alazan. The Coumyks lie to the northward of the Turkomans, about the lower parts of the rivers Axai, Koiſu, and Sundſha. A number of wandering hordes of Nogay dwell among the Coumyks; but a more conſiderable body inhabit the country between the Black Sea and Cuban. They retired to this country after the conqueſt of Aſtracan by the Ruſſians, migrating afterwards to that about the Dnieper and Bog; but, ſubmitting to Ruſſia during the laſt war, were again admitted to their former habitations. There are likewiſe ſeveral villages in the higher parts of Mount Caucaſus, whoſe inhabitants are evidently of Nogay origin; and are ſuppoſed to have come thither during the reign of Jenghiz Khan and his immediate ſucceſſors. There is likewiſe a diſtrict in Georgia, inhabited by Tartars, who are ſuppoſed to have been driven from Karaſm, when that kingdom was conquered by Jenghiz Khan.

2. The Abkas inhabit the ſouthern ſlope of the mountains lying between the Cuban and Black Sea. They are tributary to the Turks, and have among them ſtill ſome traces of Chriſtianity, which was formerly eſtabliſhed among them. They were permitted to ſettle in this country in the laſt century.

3. The Circaſſians, or Tſcherkeſs, poſſeſs a great extent of territory, including not leſs than 10 degrees of longitude, and, by reaſon of their extraordinary courage, might have become very powerful, had they been capable of uniting under one head. At any rate, they are the moſt powerful people on the northern parts of Caucaſus; and, by reaſon of their many ſingular cuſtoms, have ſtrongly attracted the attention of travellers. At the birth of a prince, he is put under the care of ſome nobleman, (called among them an *Uſden*) or ſome prince of another family is choſen for his preceptor. When only one year old, ſome arms and play things are ſhewed him, and if the former appear to be his choice, it is inſtantly celebrated with great rejoicings. The whole of his education conſiſts in acquiring the art of ſtealing ſo dextrouſly as never to be diſcovered; and, to receive this fine quality, he is taken from his father's houſe to that of his preceptor, at the age of ſeven, or at moſt of twelve years. After being perfected in cunning, addreſs, and every thing proper for conducting the moſt dangerous robberies, he is permitted to return to his father's houſe; the preceptor being rewarded with nine tenths of the booty obtained during his tuition. On account of his care of the prince, the preceptor becomes a kind of adopted ſon in

the family; and therefore, if any perſon happens to kill a prince, the only method of making a reconciliation is to ſteal away another of the ſame family, and give him a proper education. No prince can be a landholder, nor even can he poſſeſs any other property than his arms, horſes, and ſuch tribute as he may extort from the neighbouring nations. Sometimes, however, they attempt to ſeize upon the whole that belongs to their vaſſals; but as the latter have a right to transfer their allegiance to any prince they pleaſe, they generally find themſelves obliged to keep terms with them; for their wealth and grandeur muſt entirely depend on the readineſs with which their vaſſals attend them into the field. The perſons of all princes are ſacred, and this is ſaid to extend to thoſe of the Crimea, as well as of Circaſſia. Among the latter, it is ſaid, that the preſent prince obtained it by his exceſſive boldneſs, in attempting, with three companions, to break through a column of Ruſſians. In this deſperate enterpriſe he ſucceeded, but his companions loſt their lives. The greateſt honour that a prince can have is that of being foremoſt in attacking the enemy; and indeed the whole nation, as has already been obſerved, are remarkable for their courage. This property is poſſeſſed by the women as well as the men, and the latter are greatly reproached by their wives if they happen to be defeated. The education of girls is committed to their mothers, who teach them to embroider, and make cloaths for their future huſbands as well as for themſelves. Soon after the birth of a girl, a leather belt is put about her waiſt, wide enough at firſt, but ſuffered to continue until the gradual expanſion of her body burſts it; after which another is ſewed on in its ſtead. By this practice (which we ſhould think, muſt frequently bring on mortal diſeaſes) the waiſt is rendered extremely ſmall, but the ſhoulders are broad in proportion; though this is but little regarded, on account of the beauty of their breaſts. On the wedding night the belt is cut by the huſband with a dagger; and this operation is ſaid to be very often productive of fatal accidents. As the Circaſſians reſemble the ancient Spartans in their being formally educated in the profeſſion of ſtealing, ſo they agree with them alſo in this, that a huſband and wife muſt not ſee nor cohabit with each other without the utmoſt privacy. The habitation of a Circaſſian, therefore, conſiſts of two huts, one of which is appropriated to the huſband and the reception of ſtrangers, the other to the wife; and they are ſeparated from one another by an incloſure of ſtakes.

There are but few manufactures of any kind among theſe people. The only iron work made among them are the heads of their arrows; however, they manufacture ſome very fine kinds of cloth, which are ſold to other nations for cloaks, and prove extremely durable as well as light. They prepare alſo embroidered houſings for horſes, and ſome articles of leather; but their fire-arms, as well as their coats of mail, are imported from other countries; the latter from Perſia; and it is the office of the women to ſcour and keep clean their armour. They employ themſelves but little in agriculture; their chief articles of commerce being ſheep, horſes, and eſpecially ſlaves, which they take in their wars.

The origin of the Circaſſians is unknown, as they have no letters nor hiſtory among them. They call themſelves *Adige*, whence ſome have conjectured that they are the *Agedi*, a Caucaſian nation mentioned by Pliny. In proceſs of time they ſeem to have been incorporated with thoſe called Alani, and at periods ſtill later they were ſubdued by the Hunns,

and afterwards by the Khazari, a nation of Tartars, with whom they were incorporated by the name of Cabari. From an ancient tradition among them the princes ſeem to be of a family entirely different from any of their ſubjects; which opinion in ſome meaſure is countenanced by the ſuperſtitious reverence paid them by the latter. The Greek and Ruſſian hiſtorians, from the eighth to the 12th century, diſtinguiſh this people by the appellation of *Caſaks;* the Arabians call them *Mamlouks*, and the Georgians *Tſherkaſſiani*, from whence, moſt probably, has come the names of *Tſherkeſs* and *Circaſſians*, by which they have now, for a conſiderable time, been diſtinguiſhed. On the decline of the empire of Khazar, they fell under the dominions of the Arabians, Tartars, and not improbably of the Georgians; towards the cloſe of the 15th century becoming tributary to the Ruſſians. In 1560 a marriage was concluded between the czar Ivan Vaſilivitch and Maria the daughter of a Circaſſian prince, who had been ſent to Moſcow for her education; ſo that the Circaſſians were thus ſuppoſed to become the natural ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire. Some time afterwards, however, theſe diſtant ſubjects appear to have been forgotten, in conſequence of which the khans of the Crimea put in their claim to the ſovereignty, and eaſily prevailed upon the Circaſſians to pay them a ſmall tribute, under pretence of affording them protection; but, under this pretence, the officers of the khan having taken the opportunity of greatly oppreſſing the people, they took up arms every where, murdering the collectors, and afterwards deſtroyed an army of 30,000 Tartars ſent to reduce them to obedience, about the beginning of this century.

4. The Oſſi, or Oſſeti, inhabit the banks of the ſmall rivers which fall into the Terek; while another diviſion poſſeſs the countries about the Kura and its branches. The language of theſe people has ſome reſemblance of the Perſian, but their hiſtory is entirely unknown.

5. The Kiſti inhabit the higheſt ridge of Caucaſus, and the country lying along the rivulets called Sundſha. They are a nation of reſtleſs and turbulent barbarians, perpetually at variance with one another and with their neighbours. Their hiſtory and origin are entirely unknown, and their language has no affinity with any other.

6. In the country of the Leſgius are the remains of the ancient wall, beginning at Derbent, and ſuppoſed to terminate at Alazan. The place was formerly named Pylæ Caſpiæ, or the Caſpian Straits; and was a very ſtrong paſs, inſomuch, that Alexander the Great himſelf, when he ſaw it, owned, that had it not been left unguarded by the Perſians, he could not have forced it. The inhabitants of Derbent imagine that their town was built by this conqueror; but there is not the leaſt foundation for ſuch a ſuppoſition, though, from many inſcriptions in different languages ſtill extant about the place, there is great reaſon to believe that the wall, aqueducts, &c. are of very high antiquity. This town has ſuffered greatly from more modern conquerors than Alexander; particularly from Amurath the Turkiſh ſultan, who entirely deſtroyed the lower quarter at that time; and it was afterwards taken by Schah Abbas of Perſia.

The country of the Leſgius is called by the Georgians Leſquiſtan and Dagheſtan; and has Perſia and the Caſpian on the eaſt; Georgia, the Oſſi, and Kiſti on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; and on the north it is bounded by the Kiſti and other Tartar tribes. It is divided into a great number of diſtricts, and has eight different languages. In one of theſe

diſtricts

diſtricts there is a ſtrange cuſtom, that when the prince has a ſon, he is carried round from village to village, and ſuckled alternately by every woman who has a child at her breaſt, till he is of a proper age to be weaned; by which it is ſuppoſed that a more firm connection between him and his ſubjects will be eſtabliſhed than could otherwiſe take place. In another of theſe diſtricts is a large town called *Kubeſha*, the inhabitants of which pretend to be Europeans, and the general opinion is, that they are deſcended from ſome mariners caſt away upon the coaſts; though others account for their origin in the following manner. "The Greeks and Genoeſe, ſay they, carried on for ſeveral centuries a conſiderable trade, not only on the Black Sea, but likewiſe on the Caſpian, and were certainly acquainted with the mines contained in theſe mountains, from which they drew by their trade with the inhabitants great quantities of metals, particularly ſilver and copper; and in order to work theſe upon the ſpot, they ſent hither a number of workmen to eſtabliſh manufactures, and inſtruct the inhabitants in various arts. Theſe being prevented from returning to their own country by the invaſions of the barbarians, during which the mines were filled up, and the manufactures deſtroyed, erected themſelves into a kind of republic in this place. It ſeems to be ſome confirmation of this account, that theſe people are ſtill very good artiſts, and can conſtruct excellent fire-arms, not only plain but rifled; great quantities of which, as well as of ſeveral kinds of gold and ſilver work, are exported to other countries, particularly Circaſſia, Turkey, Perſia, and the Crimea, where they are much admired. The people are quiet and inoffenſive, but high-ſpirited, and capable of defending themſelves; and their territory is conſidered as a neutral ſpot, where the neighbouring princes may depoſit their treaſures with ſafety. The language of the Leſgius tribes has no affinity with any known one, except that of the Samoiedes, to which it bears ſome diſtant relation. They are ſuppoſed to be deſcended from the people called anciently Leſgæ, or Leſgyes, but their hiſtory is entirely unknown. They reſemble the Circaſſians in their perſons and dreſs, and like them ſubſiſt by predatory incurſions on their neighbours.

7. Georgia comprehends the ancient Iberia, Colchis, and not improbably part of Albania likewiſe. The country is divided into nine provinces, five of which compoſe the kingdom of Georgia properly ſo called, and the other four that of Imeretia. The country is ſo extremely beautiful, that ſome have ſuppoſed it to be the ſeat of paradiſe. Here vines grow ſpontaneouſly in ſuch numbers as are much more than ſufficient to produce the quantity of wine neceſſary for the conſumpt of the country, the remaining grapes being left to rot on the branches. The fineſt European fruit-trees are alſo produced without any culture; and the hills are covered with foreſts of oak, aſh, cheſnuts, walnuts, beech, and elm. Cotton grows alſo ſpontaneouſly; and flax, hemp, rice, wheat, and millet are produced with very little culture. The climate is likewiſe pleaſant and ſalutary; the valleys afford the fineſt paſturage, and the rivers abound with fiſh; though, being fed by torrents from the mountains, they are at certain ſeaſons of the year too rapid, and at others too ſhallow for navigation. Little of the produce of Georgia has hitherto been introduced into Europe, as the navigation of the Black Sea has till lately been in the hands of the Turks, and the land-carriage is obſtructed by the high mountains of Caucaſus, and the number of barbarous nations inhabiting them.

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The Turks and Perſians, in the 15th century, gained poſſeſſion the one of the weſtern, and the other of the eaſtern provinces of Georgia, through the weakneſs and jealouſy of the princes who governed it; ſince which time the country has often been waſted, and the inhabitants miſerably ſlaughtered, or carried into captivity, in conſequence of attempting to recover their liberty. No fewer than 80,000 families were carried off by Shah Abbas the Great, a number more than equivalent to all contained in the country at preſent; and in the beginning of this century the moſt horrid cruelties were committed on the inhabitants by the tyrant Nadir Shah, or Khouli Khan, who uſurped the throne of Perſia. But the greateſt misfortunes of Georgia have ariſen from the diſſenſions of the nobility, or barons, as they were ſtiled in our country, among themſelves. In Georgia their depredations were particularly deſtructive; for, having an unlimited power over the vaſſals, they forced them to follow them in their wars with one another, and as no party could always enſure victory, the unhappy vaſſals on each ſide were alternately carried off and ſold to the Turks, or Perſians, for ſlaves, according as the one or the other party happened to gain the victory. The deſolation was completed by the neighbouring barbarians, who being invited to take part in the wars of the barons, and perceiving the weakneſs of the country, almoſt entirely depopulated it. The inhabitants therefore are few, miſerable, naked, and half-ſtarved; and though the weakneſs of the Turkiſh and Perſian governments have now enabled the princes of this country to ſhake off their yoke, yet they have never been able to repreſs the tyranny of the nobility, or to relieve the common people from the intolerable burthens under which they groan. Their number is eſtimated at between three and four hundred thouſand; and of theſe 20,000 are ſuppoſed to be contained in Teflis, the capital, though the place is no more than two Engliſh miles in circumference. The ſtreets are narrow and dirty, the broadeſt not exceeding ſeven feet, and ſome ſcarce allowing a paſſage to one man on horſeback; but the houſes are neatly built, the rooms wainſcotted, and covered with carpets. They have all flat roofs, on which the women walk in fine weather. There is here a foundery of cannon, and the gunpowder made in this place is very good. The Armenians, who conſtitute more than one half of the inhabitants, have introduced ſeveral manufactures, of which the principal is that of printed linens. They have coins peculiar to the country, called *Abaſſes*, of about 15 d. ſterling value, and a conſiderable quantity of others are imported from Perſia and Turkey, in exchange for the cattle, honey, butter, and blue linen exported thither. The revenues do not much exceed L. 26,000, of which near 16,000 ariſes from the hearth-money levied on the peaſants. The government is very deſpotic, and the puniſhments in criminal caſes horribly cruel, but fortunately the offender has little difficulty in making his eſcape to other countries. Such eſcapes are alſo winked at by the prince, who finds more advantage in ſeizing the property of the culprit, than in putting him to a cruel death. In difficult caſes the nobility are allowed to decide the matter by combat, which they call an appeal to the judgement of God. The men of quality imitate the Perſians in their dreſs, but the common people wear the habit of the Coſſacks. The women paint their eye-brows black, and the reſt of their faces white and red; they have a very voluptuous air and manner, to which their dreſs undoubtedly contributes not a little; for their veſt is open to the girdle, ſo that they are obliged to conceal their breaſts

breasts with their hands. They have the advantage of the men in point of education; for being generally bred up in convents, they can all read and write, accomplishments generally unknown among the other sex. The people are generally accused of drunkenness, gluttony, avarice, and cowardice, vices every where common among slaves and tyrants, and by no means more natural to the Georgians than others; for when carried into other countries, they are found to change their character with their country. In this country, there are, besides Armenians and Tartars, a colony of Jews, supposed to be of great antiquity, who subsist entirely by agriculture and pasturage, with little or no application to trade. Their Rabbins pretend that they were driven by the king of Nineveh from Jerusalem to Media. The established religion in Georgia is that of the Greek church.

The Georgians pretend to have an history of their nation from the year 1792 after the creation of the world, from which the following is an extract made by professor Guldenstaedt. "In the year of the word 1792, there dwelt in a fortress, on Mount Ararat, a man named *Targamos*. He lived 600 years, and had eight sons. 1. *Aos*, the father of the Armenians. 2. *Kartelos*, the ancestor of the Georgians. 3. *Baidos*, from whom came the people of Shirvan. 4. *Moakan*, the father of those of Erivan. 5. *Lekas*, father of the Lesgius. 6. *Eros*, father of the Mingrelians. 7. *Kaukas*, of the Caucasians; and, 8. *Egros*, of the Imeretians and Caketians.

"Kartelos, the most distinguished of these children, had four sons, all of whom became sovereigns in different parts; but in process of time the wickedness of the people became so great, that they committed uncleanness with their own sisters, and even with beasts. In this degenerate period, *Alexander Makedonaeli* (i. e. Alexander the Macedonian) came from the north, conquered a great number of cities; and, in one district, put all above 15 years of age to death. From the building of Rome, which took place 3233 years after the days of Adam to the reign of Merian in A. D. 338, there reigned in Georgia 22 kings, whose names are recorded in the chronicle from whence this extract was taken; and the Christian religion was established in this country by the female saint Nino, together with the holy sister Sidonia, and the holy man Abrata, who arrived in the reign of Merian, in the year of Christ just mentioned."

The inhabitants of Imeretia are bolder and more industrious than the Georgians; but like them are miserably oppressed by their landlords, and have very few manufactures; however, they send yearly to the neighbouring parts of Georgia, a considerable quantity of wine in leathern bags carried on the backs of horses. The revenues, as in Georgia, arise chiefly from the peasants, and the tribute paid by the neighbouring princes. Confiscations also bring in their share; but all these are so far from being sufficient to answer the purpose, that the prince is generally obliged to travel from house to house for his subsistence, never changing his quarters till all the eatables are consumed. The capital of this district is named *Cutais*, and appears once to have been a considerable town, but now scarcely deserves the name of a village. It was fortified with walls and a citadel; but the late prince ordered these to be demolished, as having no force capable of defending them.

As far back as the tenth century, the great dukes of Russia are said to have possessed all the country between the Don and Cuban rivers; but

but in the eleventh it was conquered by the Tartars. On the decline of that barbarous empire, this tract was included in the kingdom of Aſtrachan; and though the conqueſt of that kingdom by the Ruſſians in the 16th century reſtored to them the rights of theſe countries, yet they were allowed to remain in the poſſeſſion of the khans of the Crimea, till the attention of the Ruſſian ſovereigns was drawn towards them by the revolutions in Perſia, which afforded an opportunity of extending their dominions farther to the eaſtward. The diſtracted ſtate of the Perſian empire in the time of Peter the Great, and the attempts of the Turks to profit by its weakneſs, invited, and in a manner compelled him to make attempts of a ſimilar kind. Before this time the city of Aſtrachan had engaged the attention of the dukes and ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and the recovery of its trade had been one of their favourite ſchemes. It had in the early ages probably been the general emporium for all the productions of Arabia, India, and Perſia.

In the 14th century, the productions of Aſia deſigned for the ſouth of Europe were brought from this port by the Venetians to their ſtaple at Tavais, while thoſe deſigned for the northern parts were conveyed to the town of Ladoga in Ruſſia, ſituated on the river Valkow, and from thence to the town of Wiſby in the iſle of Gothland This trade was forced out of its way during the barbarous incurſions of Tamerlane, and Smyrna and Aleppo now became the marts. This route is indeed better calculated for the productions of Arabia than that of Aſtrachan, but the latter ſeems to be more convenient for the conveyance of goods from the northern parts of India; and hence, as we have already obſerved, the recovery of the trade of Aſtrachan was a favourite object to the Ruſſian monarchs. Peter the Great particularly exerted himſelf for this purpoſe; for having ſecured the navigation of the Wolga, he eſtabliſhed a chain of forts between that river and the Don, beginning at a place called Waliuki, 61° eaſt longitude, and 49° 40′ north latitude; being 115 miles weſt of the river Don, and ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Oſkol, a river falling into the Don, 83 miles north-eaſt of Aſoph. From Waliuki, in a ſouth-weſt direction, at the diſtance of 90 miles, is the fort Iſum; after which the line runs weſtward about 74 miles, then 125 north-weſt, after which, turning to the ſouth-weſt, it proceeds 185 miles in that direction, terminating on the north-eaſt bank of the Nieper, in 36° eaſt longitude, and 48° 50′ north latitude; about 12 miles ſouth of the town of Zarizinka, on the bank of the Nieper, and weſt of the Orel, at a fort named Boriſo Glebſkaia. In the courſe of this line there are no fewer than 17 fortified places, well calculated for the intended purpoſe. Peter having thus formed a barrier of ſufficient ſtrength to repreſs the incurſions of the predatory nations, fitted out a fleet at Aſtrachan, giving orders that it ſhould attend the motions of his army, which directed its courſe along the weſtern ſhores of the Caſpian. In this expedition he took poſſeſſion of the towns of Derbent and Baku, reducing likewiſe the whole province of Ghilan. This province was ceded to him by Thamas, the lawful heir to the Perſian crown; but the empreſs Anne was afterwards obliged to yield this part of her dominions to the uſurper Nadir Shah. The Ruſſian ſettlements which had been made with a view to preſerve the communication between Ghilan, and the reſt of the empire were then of courſe removed to a town called Kiſlar, in 43° 54′ north latitude, and 44° 40′ eaſt longitude; on the north ſide of the river Terek

rek, 33 miles weſt of the Caſpian Sea. To this place the inhabitants of the ancient Terki, a city 30 miles eaſt of Kiſlar, on a branch of the Terek, and two miles weſt of the Caſpian, had been conveyed; ſo that it now became neceſſary to begin another chain of forts to cover the new ſettlers. Theſe were to be carried along the river Terek; but ſo little progreſs was made in the work, that in the year 1763, the forts were carried only to Tſchervalana, a village of the Coſſacks, about 49 miles to the weſt of Kiſlar. During the courſe of the ſame year another fort was built, named Maſdok, 61 miles weſt of the former; and, in 1770, eight hundred and fifty families out of the Don and Wolga regiments ſettled at Naur, about half way between theſe two poſts. Twenty five miles weſt of Maſdok is another poſt, named Cathrinengrad; and 32 to the north-weſt of it is a third, named St Paul. After this we come to thoſe of St Maria, St George, St Andrew, St Alexander, Stawropol, Moſkoſkaia, and Donſkaia. The laſt, according to the map of this country, publiſhed in 1788, is ſituated 50 miles north by eaſt of the Cuban river, and 158 ſouth-eaſt of the town of Aſoph, between which no fort appears to have been yet erected. However, 50 miles S. S. Weſt of Stawropol, on the north bank of the Cuban river, is Fort Tſaritſtinſkaw; and down this river is Poulovſkaia, Alexandrovſkaia, Blagoveſchenſkaia, and Kopil, all ſituated on the Cuban, which commands all the country north, and bordering upon Circaſſia, from the iſland of Phanagoria on the weſt, to the Caſpian Sea on the eaſt.

By the completing of this line, the barbarians are kept at a proper diſtance from the more fertile provinces of the empire, and the defence of the tributary princes of Georgia and Imeretia greatly facilitated, and conſequently their ſituation rendered much better than before. In oppoſition to this, however, it is ſaid that the loſs of men, from climate, want of proviſions, and other cauſes, muſt neceſſarily affect the empire of Ruſſia, which, at any rate, is far from being populous. It may be, however, replied, that theſe cauſes, which are purely accidental, muſt in a ſhort time be removed by reaſon of the fertility of the ſoil, and the increaſed ſtate of ſafety in which the inhabitants live; for it is not to be ſuppoſed that the inconveniences of climate are likely to be productive of as great calamities as continual war. At any rate, it is better for people to expoſe their lives in ſtriving to cultivate the arts of peace, than attempting to bring deſtruction upon others, ſo that on the whole, we muſt conclude, that this ſettlement of the Ruſſians will probably contribute greatly to the proſperity of that part of the world, and be productive of happineſs and peace in thoſe regions which have ſo long been the theatre of confuſion and war.

TARTARY.

SO much has already been ſaid of this country, under the article of Ruſſia, and that of the late Ruſſian acquiſitions, that very little can remain to be ſaid as an article by itſelf. This is more particularly the caſe, as the vaſt country we ſpeak of is not united under any one head, but divided into a number of diſtinct and wandering tribes, which differ from one another only in the various modes of exerciſing their

their barbarity. The country properly called Tartary is not leſs than 4000 miles in length, and 2400 in breadth, lying between 30 and 72 degrees of north latitude, and 50 and 170 of eaſt longitude. In its full extent it is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the ſouth by the Caſpian Sea, India, China, and Perſia; on the eaſt by the Pacific Ocean; and on the weſt by Muſcovy. The mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus, Taurus, Ararat, and Stolp in the north; the two firſt running almoſt the whole length of the continent from eaſt to weſt. The rivers are the Wolga, the Oby, Tobol, Irtis, Jeneſei, or Jeniſka, Burrampooter, Lena, and Argun; which laſt forms the boundary between the Chineſe and Ruſſian empires. In this vaſt region many places are the moſt incomfortable habitations that can be imagined, while others abound with all the neceſſaries of life. As far as the 60th degree of latitude, Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley. Cucumbers, radiſhes, turnips, and cabbages thrive here alſo very well, but ſcarcely any other kind of greens; though ſome imagine that the bad effects of the climate may be overcome by patience and induſtry. Currants, ſtrawberries, and ſeveral other of our fruits are ſaid to grow here, as well as in the Britiſh gardens; but from the end of July to the beginning of October, vaſt ſwarms of locuſts deſtroy the fruits of the earth. According to Mr Bell, who travelled throughout the whole length of Tartary with the Ruſſian ambaſſador, ſome parts of it are very fertile, and others the contrary. The animals have already been particularized.

Religion. The religion of the Tartars is generally a mixture of that of their neighbours, and thus is compoſed of the Gentoo, Mahometan, Greek, and Pagan. Some of them are groſs idolaters, and worſhip little images, which they commonly carry about with them, and which they treat with great indignity when matters do not go according to their wiſh. The religion of Thibet ſhall be deſcribed in its proper place; for the inhabitants of this country differ in many reſpects from the reſt of the Tartars. One of the principal ſects among them, is that of Schamaniſm. Thoſe who profeſs this belief, admit the exiſtence of one God, who loves his creatures, and who is omniſcient and omnipotent; but on account of his immenſe ſuperiority to them, they imagine that he pays no regard to their actions, as they are ſuppoſed to be altogether unable to offend him by their evil, and certainly cannot benefit him by their ſervices. They alſo imagine that he has divided the government of this world among a number of ſubordinate deities, who, having a very conſiderable ſhare of power, are therefore more properly the objects of human worſhip than the Supreme Deity himſelf. Theſe inferior deities are ſuppoſed by their votaries to be no leſs averſe to fraud, villany, and cruelty, than the Supreme God. All theſe people believe firmly in a future exiſtence, but they imagine women to be greatly inferior to men, and to have been created only for ſenſual pleaſure, to bear children, and to take care of houſehold affairs, in conſequence of which opinions, they are treated with great ſeverity and contempt.

Learning. Notwithſtanding the character which the Tartars have, and, no doubt deſervedly, for rudeneſs, it is certain, that under Tamerlane, and even Jengiz Khan, Aſtracan and the neighbouring countries were not only the ſeats of magnificence, but even of learning and politeneſs. Some remains of their taſte for architecture are likewiſe to be met with, and that in ſuch deſolate ſequeſtered ſpots, that acceſs can ſcarce be got to them. The ſovereign himſelf took care to promote the advancement

vancement of learning among his ſubjects, and the care of it was committed to his neareſt friends and relations. Their writings were in Arabic and Perſian; and many of their hiſtories which ſtill exiſt in manuſcript, are evidently authentic.

Curioſities. Theſe chiefly conſiſt in the remains of the buildings erected by the great conquerors above mentioned. A number of ruins of ramparts and ditches are ſtill to be met with in many places of the country, which ſerved either to defend their camps, or were ſurrounded by ſmall towns, all of which are now in ruins. Some of them, however, are ſtill in preſervation ſufficient to diſcover the remains of their former magnificence; particularly the *Stabode*, or Tartar ſuburb of Kaſimof, which was probably the reſidence of ſome of their princes. Here is a round tower, called by them Miſquir, which ſignifies a place of worſhip. There are likewiſe the remains of a palace, and in one of the burial-places is a mauſoleum; all of theſe buildings are of hewn ſtone and bricks, and from an Arabic inſcription, we learn, that in the 902d year of the Hegira, the 1520th of the Chriſtian Æra, a prince, named the Khan of Schagali was buried there. The remains of Madſchar, of the ancient Aſtrachan, and of another conſiderable town near Tzaritzin, on the banks of the Wolga, are ſtill to be ſeen; but the moſt remarkable ruins are thoſe of the ancient city of Bulgaria, all of which are built of ſtone or brick. Some epitaphs there are ſaid to be more than 1100 years old, and the moſt modern exceed 400. In ſhort, there is no country in the world which ſhews ſuch a number of ruined cities, nor ſo many marks of the deſtructive effects of war, as Tartary. Many of theſe remains are to be met with in places abſolutely deſart and uninhabited. In 1720, ſays Voltaire, in his hiſtory of Peter the Great, there was found in Calmuc Tartary, a ſubterranean houſe of ſtone, ſome urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equeſtrian ſtatue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women ſeated on thrones, and a roll of manuſcripts, which laſt was ſent to the academy of inſcriptions at Paris, and was found to be written in the language of Thibet.

The cities, commerce, and manufactures of this part of the world, have already been taken notice of under various heads.

Hiſtory. This country, formerly known by the name of Scythia, was in the moſt early ages peopled by tribes of wandering barbarians, remarkable only for their ferocity, and to appearance deſigned by Providence as ſcourges to the reſt of mankind. Any regular hiſtory of ſuch people is not to be expected. In the introduction we have given an account of ſome of their firſt irruptions, when they conquered Media, and the weſtern parts of Aſia. To them alſo are we to aſcribe the downfal of the mighty empire of Rome, and the vaſt ſwarms of barbarians which from time to time poured in upon it. Mr Gibbon, in his account of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, attributes this inundation of barbarians to the conqueſts of a Scythian or Tartar prince named Toulun; who, extending his dominions from the country to the north-eaſt of China, beyond the river Irtiſh, drove the people every where before him. The vanquiſhed, in their turn, preſſing upon others ſettled to the weſtward, drove them farther and farther in that direction, until at laſt the whole were urged upon the Roman empire.

After this dreadful irruption, we hear of no more conqueſts of great conſequence attempted by theſe barbarians, till the time of Jenghiz Khan. This conqueror, whom we have ſo frequently had occaſion to mention

in terms of reproach, was originally called *Temujin*, and was a petty prince among the Moguls, a people inhabiting the eaſtern part of Tartary. All the Mogul princes at that time owned ſubjection to one whom they called *Vang Khan*, or the Great Khan. Temujin, at the age of 13, was deprived of the greateſt part of his dominions, which he could not recover till he arrived at that of 40, which correſponded with the year 1201. At that time he totally reduced the rebels, and as a ſpecimen of his lenity, cauſed 70 of their chiefs to be thrown into as many cauldrons of boiling water. Next year he made war upon Vang-khan himſelf, a prince known to Europeans by the title of Preſter John of Aſia. The cauſes of this war are ſomewhat uncertain, nor are they of any importance to be known. The event, however, was fortunate to Temujin; who, having defeated and killed his antagoniſt, annexed his vaſt dominions to thoſe he had already, and from that time became quite irreſiſtible. He now ſet out with a deſign of conquering the whole world, and, meeting with uninterrupted ſucceſs, in 1206 he took upon him the title of *Jenghiz Khan*, an epithet implying ſuperlative dignity, ſuch as are given in the New Teſtament to our Saviour. Directing his courſe firſt towards China, he ſubdued the kingdom of Hya there; then proceeding weſtward, he ſubdued Tangut, Kitay, Turkeſtan, Karaſm, Great Bukharia, part of Perſia and India. The rapidity of his conqueſts was ſuch, that all theſe vaſt regions were reduced in 26 years; and the cruel ſlaughters with which they were attended were no leſs ſurpriſing than the ſucceſs he met with. Having almoſt depopulated the countries through which he paſſed, he died on an expedition to China in 1227, thereby freeing the world from the moſt bloody tyrant by whom it was ever infeſted. For ſome time after his death, the empire he founded continued in full power; and during this period, his ſucceſſors reduced the whole empire of China, together with the kingdom of Korea; but they were foiled in their attemps on Cochin China, Tonking, and Japan. On the weſtern ſide their dominions were not much enlarged till the time of Hulaku, who conquered all Media, Babylonia, Meſopotamia, Aſſyria, Syria, Georgia, Armenia, and almoſt all Aſia Minor; putting an end to the Saracen empire by the taking of Bagdad in 1258. Such vaſt dominions, however, being by far too extenſive to be governed by one head, the Tartar empire could not long continue united. It therefore ſplit into a number of ſmall kingdoms, each governed by independent petty princes, all of whom, however, continued to own ſome allegiance to the family of Jenghiz Khan, till the year 1335, when *Timur Bek*, known to the Europeans by the name of *Tamerlane*, having got the better of ſome of his competitors, began to lay the foundation of a new empire, ſimilar to that of his predeceſſor juſt mentioned. Thus were the eaſtern parts of the world once more threatened with deſolation, though it muſt be owned, that Timur was one degree leſs bloody and leſs ſucceſsful than Jenghiz Khan; however his maſſacres and devaſtations were alſo ſeverely felt; and his conqueſts very extenſive; comprehending the whole of Bukharia, Armenia, Perſia, Georgia, Karaſm, and great part of the country properly called Tartary. Turning his arms weſtward, he ſubdued all the countries from the Euphrates to the confines of Europe, and even entering the Ruſſian empire, pillaged the city of Moſcow, though he did not make any permanent conqueſt. Then returning to the eaſt, he ſubdued India, and again proceeding to the weſtward, reduced Syria, and gave a dreadful overthrow

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to the Turkiſh ſultan Bajazet. After this he ſet out again to the eaſt, with a deſign to conquer China, but here the force of nature failed; and, worn out with deſtruction, he himſelf was at laſt forced to ſubmit to death, which during his life he had inflicted on ſo many thouſands.

After the death of Tamerlane in 1405, his empire fell inſtantly to pieces, and ſince that time the rapid encreaſe of civilization in the weſtern parts of the world hath given the nations there ſuch an advantage over theſe barbarians, that it is by no means probable they will ever again be able to ſpread ſuch deſolation over the world as they have formerly done. The name of Tamerlane is ſtill revered among them, and all the petty princes or khans pretend a lineal deſcent from him, and the ſame is done by the emperors of Hindooſtan themſelves. The reputed capital of Tartary is Bokharia, ſituated in 39° 49' north latitude, and diſtant only 13 miles from Samarcand (the *Maracanda* of the ancients, ſuppoſed to have been built by an Arabian prince, but repaired by Alexander the Great) the birth place of Tamerlane. The preſent inhabitants range about in hordes, or tribes, who move from place to place with their cattle, after the manner of the Patriarchs. Each of theſe has a khan or prince, and ſometimes they chooſe a great khan, who can occaſionally bring into the field 100,000 horſemen. This ſhews us how greatly the power of the Tartars is diminiſhed ſince the times of Jenghiz Khan and Tamerlane, for each of theſe had an army of 800,000, or a million, who attended them throughout their whole lifetime. Armies of this kind, if managed with the ſmalleſt ſkill imaginable, are altogether irreſiſtible, except by others nearly equal in number, and one of Tamerlane's exploits, viz. the taking of Smyrna, is a remarkable inſtance. This place was defended by the knights of St John, ſo remarkable for their valour, that had they been attacked by only four or five times their own numbers of Tartars, they would have gained a certain victory. Even as matters ſtood, Tamerlane could not take the place till he had acceſs to it on all ſides, and this could not be had but by filling up the harbour. But this coſt him no more than a command that each ſoldier in his army ſhould throw one ſtone into it; which being obeyed, the harbour was filled up almoſt in a moment. From their numbers alone, the Scythians and Tartars have always been formidable; and for want of theſe numbers, the Ruſſians, Chineſe, and Perſians, are making continual encroachments on their territories, and will no doubt in time totally ſubdue and oblige them to live at peace. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that their deſtructive method of carrying on war by deſolating the country, which is followed by all their tribes without exception, renders them a very dreadful enemy, and their total ſubjugation an event much to be wiſhed for.

ARABIA.

THOUGH this country is by ſome modern geographers confounded with Turkey in Aſia, yet we cannot help thinking it abſolutely neceſſary

ceſſary to treat of it as ſeparate and independent of any other; and this the more eſpecially, as it is unverſally allowed that the Arabs have never been ſubdued, according to the Divine promiſe given to Hagar the mother of Iſhmael.

Extent, Situation, &c. This country, in its greateſt extent from eaſt to weſt, is not leſs than 1400 miles, and about 1200 in breadth from ſouth to north; lying between 12 and 35 degrees of north latitude, and between 36 and 61 of eaſt longitude. On the weſt it is bounded by the Iſthmus of Suez, Paleſtine, part of Syria, and the Red Sea; on the eaſt by the Perſian Gulf, the Bay of Ormus, and the river Euphrates; on the north by part of Syria, Khuzeſtan Irak, and Diyar-bekir; and on the ſouth by the ſtraits of Babel Mandel, or Babel Mandeb, and the Indian Ocean.

Diviſions. The moſt ancient diviſion of Arabia, as we learn from ſcripture, was into two parts, name *Arabah* and *Kedem*, the former ſignifying the weſt, the latter the eaſt. It was afterwards ſpoken of by Ptolemy the geographer as divided into three parts, viz. Arabia Petræa, Arabia Deſerta, and Arabia Felix. The firſt was bounded on the weſt by Egypt, or the Iſthmus of Suez, and the weſtern arm of the Red Sea, called by the ancients the Heroopolitan gulf; on the eaſt by Syria, and Arabia Deſerta; on the north by Paleſtine, the Dead Sea, and Cœleſyria; and on the ſouth by Arabia Felix. Arabia was bounded on the north by the Euphrates; on the weſt by Syria, Judæa, and Arabia Petræa; on the eaſt by a ridge of mountains which ſeparated it from Babylonia and Chaldæa; and on the ſouth by Arabia Felix, from whence it was likewiſe divided by a ridge of hills. Arabia Felix was bounded on the north by Arabia Petræa and Deſerta; on the ſouth by the Red Sea; on the weſt and eaſt by part of the Red Sea, and the Arabian and Perſian Gulfs.

Air, Soil, and Produce. The air of this country is generally very dry, and ſometimes intolerably hot. The hot winds common throughout Africa and many parts of Aſia are likewiſe not unfrequent in Arabia. They are always met with in countries adjacent to ſandy deſarts, and have very remarkable properties. Their heat is ſo great, that it reſembles what is felt on ſtanding before the mouth of a large oven when the bread is newly taken out of it; and, contrary to what happens in other winds, the heat increaſes with their ſtrength, which is ſometimes very great; and it is worſt of all when the wind blows in ſqualls. They are exceſſively greedy of moiſture, and will therefore ſhrivel up the ſkin, dry up the perſpiration of the lungs, and ſoon bring on convulſions and death in travellers who are unhappily expoſed to them without ſhelter. The beſt remedy in theſe caſes is to ſtop the mouth and noſtrils with an handkerchief; and thus the ſmall quantity of air inſpired muſt be ſaturated with the moiſture left upon the cloth by the breath, before it enters the lungs. Camels by a natural inſtinct bury their noſes in the ſand. Theſe winds are occaſioned by the air moving over a vaſt tract of ſand, where it meets with no moiſture, and is conſequently reduced to ſuch a ſtate of heat and dryneſs by the reflexion of the ſun's light, as to produce the effects abovementioned. Another evil attending theſe winds is, that they bring along with them vaſt quantities of ſand, ſo fine, that it penetrates every where, and will of itſelf occaſion very dangerous affections of the lungs in ſuch as breathe it. In other reſpects the

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air is pure and ſerene, the luminaries ſhine with great ſplendor, and the climate is far from being unhealthy.

The ſoil throughout the whole country, not excepting great part of Arabia Felix, is very ſandy and barren; and it is remarkable, that in all theſe deſart countries, eſpecially where remote from mountains, the ſoil is impregnated with ſalt, as appears by the brackiſh taſte of the water, which may frequently be found by digging wells to a conſiderable depth. That diviſion, called Arabia Petræa, is full of rocks and ſands, notwithſtanding which, it has ſome fruitful ſpots which the Arabs uſe for paſturing their cattle. The greateſt part of Arabia Deſerta is much of the ſame nature; ſeldom having any rain, excepting at the times of the equinox. Copious dews indeed fall in the night time; but theſe are conſtantly abſorbed by the heat of the ſun throughout the day; and throughout the whole are vaſt mountains of ſand heaped together by the violence of the winds. Fountains are extremely rare, notwithſtanding which there are numbers of ſmall fertile ſpots appearing like iſlands ſurrounded by immenſe oceans of ſand, and which by their verdure are extremely delightful.

The vegetable productions of this country are entirely the gift of nature; as its wandering inhabitants do not chuſe to trouble themſelves with cultivating even thoſe parts which are capable of yielding a proper increaſe. From the earlieſt ages, however, Arabia has been famed for its gums and ſpices, which, by reaſon of the heat and dryneſs of the air, probably arrive at greater perfection here than in other countries. A particular kind of balſam, called the balm of Mecca, is the produce of an Arabian tree or ſhrub, of which Mr Bruce obtained a branch. This was formerly celebrated with the moſt extravagant encomiums for the cure of wounds, but its reputation in that reſpect has long ſince declined. Myrrh, frankincenſe, &c. are produced here in great abundance; and the coffee of Arabia is deſervedly held in high eſtimation. With regard to the animal productions, the Arabian horſes have always been reckoned the beſt in the world. Camels are found here in great abundance, and indeed it would be impoſſible in ſuch a deſart country to ſubſiſt without them; and they conſtitute a great part of the food of the people. This animal is ſaid to be exceedingly mindful of any injury, and never to fail in taking revenge at a proper opportunity; and the feeding much upon their fleſh is by ſome given as a reaſon why the Arabians are ſo much given to revenge. Though the deſarts of Arabia, however, afford ſubſiſtence with ſuch difficulty to man, or any uſeful animal, they are exceedingly favourable to the production of that moſt deſtructive inſect the locuſt; for the Syrians, who are often infeſted by them, ſay that they always come from the deſarts of Arabia.

Mountains. It was through the deſarts of Arabia Petræa that the children of Iſrael took their journey from Egypt to the promiſed land; and in this deſert ſtand the mountains of Sinai and Horeb, ſo much mentioned in the ſacred writ; and in theſe deſerts alſo were done all the miracles wrought among that people, from the time of their paſſage through the Red Sea, till they came to the promiſed end of their journey. Hence, the deſarts we ſpeak of have been explored by the curious as far as poſſible, and are ſtill inhabited by the ſuperſtitious, though leſs ſo than formerly, as it is now much more dangerous than before. Here alſo are the *Written Mountains*, of which we ſhall give an account when ſpeaking of the curioſities of the country.

Among

Among the many modern travellers who have viſited Mount Sinai, Mr Thomſon, formerly quoted, was one, of whoſe journey from Egypt to that mountain, in 1734, we ſhall give an abſtract, hoping the reader will excuſe us, if, for the ſake of his amuſement, we take notice of ſeveral particulars which may be conſidered as not altogether agreeable to our plan.

The journey was extremely difficult and troubleſome. In order to accompliſh it, he found it neceſſary to hire camels from the convent of monks who belong to Sinai, but reſide at Cairo in Egypt. This was done at the expence of about four pounds ſterling per camel; and with the caravan, which had along with it 300 camels, our author ſet out in September 1734 for the town of Suez; the camels being laden with corn for that place. Having travelled ten hours without ſtopping, they made an encampment, and as ſoon as it grew dark, the camels were made to lie down, binding one of their legs, or elſe tying two of them together, to prevent them from riſing and going aſtray. Next morning they were greatly incommoded by vaſt clouds of ſand, which, beſides the danger of ſuffocation, ſpoiled ſome of their proviſions; however, they continued their journey that day for eleven hours without ſtopping. Next day they came to a fine large well, but the water brackiſh, and in about an hour after, arrived at the town of Suez, ſituated near the uppermoſt point of the Red ſea. It is deſcribed by our author as a moſt miſerable place. "Freſh water, ſays he, is brought from Naba, on the eaſt coaſt of the Red Sea, and is ſo dear as to be ſold in the ſmalleſt meaſures. But this is far from being the only inconvenience; for this town, of all others, is the moſt deſtitute of every thing that the earth produces; having not one garden about it, nor graſs, corn, trees, or any ſort of herbage in its neighbourhood."

As the caravan proceeded no farther than Suez, our traveller was now obliged to put himſelf under the protection of an Arabian *Sheykh*, or prince, by whom he was furniſhed with proper guides, &c. having got alſo a recommendatory letter from the Bey of Suez to the governor of Tor, they croſſed the Bay of Suez, where it is about a mile broad, to the eaſtern ſhore, where Naba abovementioned is ſituated. Travelling three hours to the ſouthward, they came to a dangerous quagmire, full of ſprings, called the *Springs of Moſes*. Only one of theſe ſprings affords good water; the reſt being warm, brackiſh, and ſomewhat ſulphureous; and near this place they encamped for the firſt night. Next day they ſtill kept along the coaſt of the Red Sea, at the diſtance of about half a league; and, the day following, began to croſs the ſandy deſart, in which they met with a ſolitary eminence covered with ſhrubs, on which they encamped; and this night took up their reſidence in the deſart of *Shedur*, the *Shur* of the ſcriptures. Proceeding in their journey the day following, they came to a mountain named *Jebel le Morah*, near which the Iſraelites met with thoſe bitter waters about which they murmured*. This night they encamped in the bed of a Winter torrent, named *Corondel*; which, though it afforded no water, was covered with ſhrubs, and ſupplied food for their camels. Stepping a little out of their way, they were ſhewn a grotto, called Pharaoh's Bath, of which an account ſhall be given under the head of curioſities. Setting out from Corondel, they met with ſome Arabs, who departed quietly, on having ſome bread and tobacco given them, for which they begged. The bed of another mountain torrent was paſſed this day, having near it a ſalt ſpring and a few

* Exod. xv. 23, 24.

few palm-trees; their encampment was by a ſpring of brackiſh water, with a few ſhrubs by it. This day, beſides the Arabs already mentioned, they paſſed a whole camp, without receiving the leaſt moleſtation. In three days more they came to the town of *Tor*, having paſſed ſeveral mountains which contained beautiful granites, of which ſeveral ſpecimens were collected. In their journey they alſo met with a ſpring of ſalt water, which left a cake of ſalt by the evaporation of its waters, which ſpread themſelves along the ground; but afterwards they found a ſpring of better water, and then a grove of palm-trees.

At Tor our travellers took up their lodging in a houſe belonging to the convent of Mount Sinai, and having ſtaid two days, they ſet out with one of the monks belonging to that convent. Two hours after leaving the place, they came to ſeveral ſprings of ſalt warm water, and a great number of palm-trees. Here the monks have a garden; and it is ſuppoſed that this is the place called *Elim*, where the Iſraelites encamped, and found twelve wells of water, and 70 palm-trees *. One of theſe fountains is named the Bath of Moſes, and held in great veneration. Our author obſerves, that there are not now indeed twelve ſprings of water here, but that ſome of them may have been choaked up with ſand, and in ſo long a courſe of years, the number of palm-trees may likewiſe be ſuppoſed to have encreaſed.

Sinai lies to the eaſtward of Elim, and from the latter there is the firſt diſtinct view of it. To arrive at this mountain they had to croſs the deſert of Sin, where manna was firſt given to the Iſraelites. The breadth of the deſert itſelf is only eight hours journey; but it abounds with vipers and lizards. It is not, however, abſolutely barren, but produces ſome of the trees that yield Gum-Arabic and others. This night they reſted at the entrance of a narrow valley, near a ſmall ſpring of indifferent water; and, having ſpent the next day in paſſing through many intricate and difficult ways among the mountains, they arrived at laſt at Sinai, which ſtands by itſelf on a ſpacious plain.

Sinai is now termed by the Arabs *Jebel Mouſa*, or the *Mountain of Moſes*, and ſometimes, by way of eminence, the *Mountain*. "It is really, ſays our author, one hill with two ſummits; but the Greeks have divided it into four or five parts, which have obtained ſo many different names. However, the moſt common diviſion of it is into Sinai, properly ſo called, and *Horeb*. The names of the other parts are, the Mountain of St Catherine, Mount *Serich*, Mount *Epiſteme*, and the Mount of Moſes."

The empreſs Helena is ſaid to have founded the preſent convent on Sinai; and the uſual way to aſcend the mountain is by ſtone ſteps, formerly laid at her expence alſo as is ſaid, and which begin at the convent on the north ſide of Mount Horeb. Theſe are narrow, of the rough red granite of the mountains; but moſt of them are either moved out of their places, or totally carried away, ſo that the aſcent is very fatiguing. As we proceed up the mountain, we meet with a fine ſpring of water, beyond which there is a narrow gateway, and a ſecond at ſome diſtance beyond that. At the firſt of theſe gateways it is ſaid that all Chriſtians formerly uſed to deliver a certificate of their having confeſſed their ſins at the convent below, and there received a paper to carry them to the ſecond gate, in order to their receiving the ſacrament on the top of the mountain; but theſe ceremonies are now diſuſed. A little beyond the ſecond gateway the roads divide towards the right and left;

* Exod xv. 27. Numb. xxxiii. 9.

left; the one going to Mount Horeb, the other to the *Vale of God*, ſo called by the monks, and where they have another convent. From this place the aſcent grows very ſteep, and we come firſt to two chapels, dedicated the one to Elijah, and the other to Eliſha. In the former there is a little grotto, where the prophet is ſaid to have dwelt when he fled from the fury of Jezebel *. Higher up we are ſhewn the print of a camel's foot in the rock, which is held in great veneration by the Mahometans, as they believe it to have been printed there by Mahomet's own camel, which, they ſay, placed one foot upon this mountain, another at Cairo, a third at Damaſcus, and the fourth at Mecca. Notwithſtanding the extraordinary ſize of this animal, however, the print of the foot is no bigger than that of an ordinary camel.

Going ſtill farther up, we come to a large ſtone jutting out; beyond which it is ſaid that Elijah himſelf was not permitted to go farther, the aſcent to the top being allowed only to Moſes. The ſummit of this mountain is ſomewhat conical, or rather it has two ſmall ſummits, in one of which is a moſque, and on the other a Greek church; and a ſecond belonging to the Latins at a ſmall diſtance from it; it being on this very ſpot, according to tradition, that God gave the law to Moſes. The higheſt part of the mountain, adjacent to the Latin church, is a great rock, not very eaſy of aſcent. On one ſide of this rock is a little cave or grotto, in which Moſes is ſaid to have faſted 40 days and 40 nights †; and from thence there is a crack quite through the rock, ſo as to let in the light. Here, according to tradition, it was that the Lord hid Moſes, while his glory paſſed by, that he might not ſee his face ‡; and thus they pretend to ſhew ſeveral other places mentioned in ſcripture.

The north part of Mount Sinai is of red granite; but, farther up, the ſtone is of a yellow colour, with ſmall black grains intermixed, which difference is perceptible in the mountain at a conſiderable diſtance. There are three roads to the top of it, of which the eaſieſt is called the Road of *Serich*, and is thought to have been that choſen by Moſes. It abounds with aromatic herbs, and affords good paſture for cattle. About a furlong from the place where this road ends, in the vale of Baka, there is a cavity in the rock, repreſenting, though in a very rude manner, the head of a calf; and in this the monks ſay that Aaron caſt the head of the golden calf which he ſet up §. They are not ſolicitous about the body, as the head, in their opinion, was the only object of worſhip.

The account of Mount Sinai given by the biſhop of Clogher, who viſited it in 1722, is much the ſame with that of Mr Thomſon already related; only he informs us, that the aſcent at that time was tolerably eaſy, by means of the ſteps, in number 15,000; ſo that probably great numbers of them had been diſplaced in the interval betwixt his journey and that of Mr Thomſon. He gives us the dimenſions of Elijah's cave, viz. five feet long, four deep, and four and an half in height. He tells us, that the Greek monks acknowledged that they had made the print of the camel's foot above mentioned, in order to obtain from them the greater veneration for the mountain. In the cleft where Moſes ſaw the divine glory, they pretended to ſhew him the print of the prophet's whole body in the rock, which undoubtedly had the ſame origin with the camel's foot.

N° 15. Theſe

* 1 Kings xix. 8, 9. † Exod. xxxiv. 28. ‡ Exod xxxiii. 22, 23. § Exod xxxii. 4.

These are the particulars most worthy of notice relative to Mount Sinai; but descending from thence into the vale of Rephidim, they were shewed the rock (called by the Greeks the *Stone of Fountains*) which Moses smote with his rod to bring forth water *. This rock has been visited by several travellers, particularly Dr Shaw, Dr Pocock, the bishop of Clogher, and Mr Thomson, all of whom agree pretty well in their description of it. From their accounts we learn, that it is a detached block of granite, 15 feet long, 10 broad, and 12 in height; on the top of which, as well as all down the sides, the waters have formed a channel, which, passing across one corner, is about 20 inches wide, and two deep, incrusted all over in the inside like a tea-kettle which has been long in use. At the top are a sort of openings, or mouths, some of which resemble the lion's mouth that is sometimes cut in stone spouts, but which do not appear to be the work of any tool. There are about twelve on each side; and within every one is an horizontal crack, while some have also a crack perpendicularly down. There is also a crack from one of the mouths next the hill, that extends two or three feet towards the north, and all round the south end. Some of these holes are four or five inches deep, and one or two in breadth. About 20 miles north-west of Mount Sinai, according to the Arabs, is such another stone, full of holes, and shewing the marks of water running upon it. This is supposed to be the rock which Moses smote twice, as mentioned Numbers xx. 11.

Besides the mountains of Sinai and Horeb, there are many others in this part of the world, such as St Catherine's, the Mount of Moses where he kept Jethro's flock, Mount *Epistome*, &c. but our limits will not allow us to enlarge upon them.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs. The Arabians have from their earliest origin been a roving and warlike race, excessively addicted to plunder; and indeed this seems to be inherent in their natures, and not at all the consequence of the barrenness of their country; for those who have migrated into Barbary manifest the very same disposition. When an Arab discovers a solitary traveller at a distance, he rides furiously against him, crying out, "Undress thyself, thy aunt (*my wife*) is without a garment." If he submits without opposition, he is entitled to mercy; but if he makes resistance, and kills or wounds his adversary, there is no possibility of escaping death from the countrymen of the deceased. It must be owned, however, that there is a very considerable difference among them as well as other nations; for some are to the last degree treacherous, cruel, and unjust, while others are mild and civil in their dealings. Among them all, however, if a person put himself under the protection of an Arab, he is sure of safety; and even the worst of them will not break their words in this respect. Such as Mr Thomson had access to see were mild and peaceable enough. They all lived in tents; and their riches consisted only of a few camels, goats, and sometimes sheep; their common food being goats milk and dates. "It is best, says he, for a traveller to be liberal to them, and to give them something to eat, for they seldom do him any injury. Nor are they themselves churlish in this respect, but will invite others to eat with them as they pass by their encampments, and are always pleased to see

* Exod. xxii. 6.

rangers conform willingly to their cuſtoms. If they kill a ſheep, they eat it all at once, though perhaps they have nothing but bread to live on the day after. They are great lovers of veniſon, but camel's fleſh they reckon one of their greateſt dainties. In their perſons they are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion; black hair and black eyes are common to them with other people in the ſame climate. Their voices are rather effeminate than ſtrong; but they are brave people, expert at the ſcymitar and lance; and ſince they have become acquainted with the uſe of fire-arms, are tolerably good marksmen.

Dreſs. This conſiſts of a kind of long blue ſhirt, tied about them with a white ſaſh, or girdle. Some of them have drawers, and a veſt of furs or ſheep ſkins, putting the rough ſide towards their ſhirts to keep them warm, and turning it the contrary way when they would be cooler. The women are very ill-clothed, and cover their faces in ſuch a manner, that nothing can be ſeen but their eyes; holes being left in the covering for that purpoſe.

Commerce. This was formerly conſiderable; as, before the Portugueſe interrupted the commerce of the Red Sea, all the trade upon it paſſed through their hands. Aden, a town on the Indian Ocean, at the extremity of Arabia, was the mart in theſe parts, and by reaſon of its ſituation, which afforded an eaſy communication between the countries of Egypt, Ethiopia, Perſia, and India, was for many ages one of the moſt flouriſhing factories in Aſia. But at laſt the Turks having made themſelves maſters of it, the king of Yemen made war upon them, drove them out, and removed the trade to Mocha. The principal article of trade from that place now is coffee; of which it is ſuppoſed that no leſs than 12,555,000 pounds are annually exported. Of this the European companies take off a million and an half; Perſia three millions and an half; the fleet from Suez ſix millions and an half; Hindooſtan, the Maldives, and the Arabian colonies on the coaſt of Africa, 50,000 pounds, and the caravans a million. Beſides this, a conſiderable trade is carried on with Abyſſinia in ſheep, elephants teeth, muſk, and ſlaves: likewiſe with the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, for gold, ſlaves, amber, and ivory; with the Perſian Gulf for dates, tobacco, and corn; with Surat, for great quantities of coarſe linens, and a few fine; with Bombay and Pondicherry for iron, lead, and copper, which are carried thither all the way from Europe; with Malabar for rice, pepper, ginger, &c.; with the Maldives for gum, aloes-wood, &c.; and with Coromandel for cottons, chiefly of a blue colour. The value of all theſe articles does not amount to L. 270,000. Moſt of them are conſumed in the interior parts of the country; but ſome are tranſported to Abyſſinia, Socotora, and the eaſtern coaſt of Africa.

Curioſities. Among theſe we may juſtly account the *Written Mountains* already mentioned to be one of the moſt remarkable. Theſe ſtand in the deſert of Sinai; and the biſhop of Clogher informs us, that on his deſcent from that mountain, he paid a viſit to them, and that for an hour together he paſſed by them; and that they are engraved with ancient unknown characters, which are cut into the hard marble rock ſo high, that they are in ſome places 12 or 14 feet from the ground; "and though, ſays he, we had in our company perſons who were acquainted with the Arabic, Greek, Hebrew, Syriac, Coptic, Latin, Armenian, Turkiſh, Engliſh, Illyrican, German, and Bohemian languages, yet none of them had any knowledge of theſe characters; which have

have nevertheleſs been cut into the hard rock with the greateſt induſtry, in a place where there is neither water, nor any thing to be gotten to eat. It is probable therefore, theſe unknown characters contain ſome very ſecret myſteries, and that they were engraved either by the Chaldæans, or ſome other perſons long before the coming of Chriſt." In a note upon this paſſage of the book, however, we are told, that "the learned allow, that the ancient Hebrew having been diſuſed during the Babyloniſh captivity, is loſt, and that it is the Chaldee character which we now uſe inſtead of it. The probability therefore is, that theſe are the ancient Hebrew characters, which the Iſraelites having learned to write at the giving of the law on Mount Sinai, diverted themſelves with practiſing it on theſe mountains during their forty years abode in the wilderneſs." This indeed is a very natural conjecture; but unhappily we are informed by a traveller who has very lately viſited theſe mountains, and copied ſome part of the inſcriptions, that they do not at all relate to the divine law, or the true religion, but to heatheniſm and Pagan ſymbols. Notwithſtanding this, however, there is the utmoſt probability that the inſcriptions are the work of the Iſraelites, as we know they were always prone to idolatry, and as they muſt have amuſed themſelves with ſomething, might have executed theſe inſcriptions. The method which the traveller we ſpeak of took to copy the inſcriptions, was by clapping a ſheet of paper upon the place he wiſhed to take off, and then tracing them on the other ſide. A great many mountains, beſides theſe we ſpeak of, in this wilderneſs, are full of inſcriptions, and even Sinai itſelf has a conſiderable number. Among other curioſities we may reckon the ſtones which Mr Thomſon tells us he ſaw on his firſt ſetting out from Suez, which exactly reſembled wood. "The greateſt curioſities about Tor, ſays he, are the production of the Red Sea, which is filled with a vaſt variety of marine vegetables, ſuch as madrepores, fungi or muſhrooms, brain-ſtones, and other coralline bodies, which appear when the ſea is calm, like a grove or foreſt under water; particularly the branched madrepores, whereof ſome are ſix or ſeven feet high, ſpreading themſelves like an oak, or ſhooting up pyramidally like a cypreſs. The other ſpecies frequently grow into very large maſſes, and are uſed in the buildings of Tor. One thing is remarkable of the madrepores, that both the white and red kind become yellow ſoon after they are taken out of the water." To theſe we may add the enormous ſhell-fiſh met with in this ſea, ſome of the muſcle kind being no leſs than 15 or 18 inches in length, and others as much in diameter.

The place called the Baths of Pharaoh is a great natural curioſity. It is a grotto in the ſide of a mountain, having two mouths, one of them leading to a ſpring of very hot water, which finds its way through the rock; and falls into the ſea in ſeveral little ſtreams, at the diſtance of a quarter of a mile, retaining a great degree of heat to the very laſt. It is extremely nauſeous, and appears to be ſtrongly impregnated with ſalt and ſulphur. The grotto itſelf is very hot, ſo that one ſweats plentifully upon entering it; but ſome people are ſaid to have been killed by the noxious vapours in advancing too far. Theſe waters, like all warm baths, have a medicinal quality.

Mr Thomſon takes notice of a curious phenomenon, in paſſing the burning ſandy deſerts of this country, viz. that when they are level, they appear at a little diſtance like a collection of water, which ſeems to

advance as we do, always keeping before us at the diſtance of about a quarter of a mile, whilſt the intermediate ſpace ſeems all in a glow; occaſioned by the trembling fluctuation of the vapours exhaled from the earth by the power of the ſun. By this vapour alſo every object is magnified in an extraordinary manner; ſo that a ſheep, within the apparent collection of water, appears as large as a camel, and a ſhrub like a tall tree.

Hiſtory. Among a people ſo rude and barbarous as the ancient Arabs were, we can expect nothing but uncertain traditions inſtead of hiſtory; nor indeed is there any particular concerning them very well authenticated till the time of Mahomet. There are ſeveral diſtinct kingdoms mentioned as exiſting in Arabia, particularly thoſe of Yaman, Hira, Ghaſſan, &c. All theſe maintained their independence, notwithſtanding the powerful empires with which they were ſurrounded; and the people were always remarkable for their valour and martial ſpirit, and for this reaſon their aſſiſtance was much courted by the moſt powerful nations. Being always divided into a number of different tribes, however, which were very often at war with each other, an opportunity was given to Mahomet to conquer them all, at the ſame time that the peculiar circumſtances then attending the world at large allowed his ſucceſſors to erect a kingdom much more extenſive than even that of the Romans, though far leſs durable.

This impoſtor was born in the year 569; and, if we may believe the eaſtern hiſtorians, was deſcended in a direct line from Iſhmael. He was left when an infant in very mean circumſtances; the whole of his mother's fortune amounting to no more than five camels, and one Ethiopian ſlave; but he was provided for by his uncle Abu Taleb, a rich man, who cauſed him to be inſtructed in merchandiſe; and having afterwards the good fortune to become agreeable to a rich widow named Khadijah, he made his fortune by marrying her.

When about 40 years of age, Mahomet began to broach his doctrine, which may be reduced to two points, viz. the abſolute unity of the Godhead, and that he himſelf was the great prophet ſpoken of by Moſes. He ſoon converted his own family, and likewiſe made proſelytes of ſome individuals, but when he came to preach publickly he met with the moſt violent oppoſition, and his followers were perſecuted to ſuch a degree, that ſome of them were obliged to fly into Ethiopia, where they met with a kind reception. At laſt, ſuch a powerful combination was formed againſt him, that in all probability he would have failed in his attempt, had it not been for a very ſtrange accident. The enemies of Mahomet had entered into a league againſt him, which they had written upon parchment. Mahomet told his uncle Abu Taleb, that God had manifeſtly ſhewn his diſpleaſure againſt them, by ſending a worm to eat out every word of this ſacrilegious covenant, excepting his own name; and with this circumſtance Abu Taleb inſtantly acquainted them, offering, if it was not true, to deliver up Mahomet to them. On looking at the inſtrument, however, this was found to be really the caſe, and the impoſtor's fame immediately roſe to a very high pitch. Still, however, the oppoſition continued, and that with ſuch violence, that he was obliged at laſt to leave Mecca altogether, and fly to Medina, in order to avoid death. This he did not accompliſh without the greateſt danger, and ſome miraculous events are ſaid to have intervened in order to ſave him from the fury of his enemies. This flight, which is called by the Mahometans

hometans the *Hegira*, ſerves them for an Æra, from which they date their tranſactions, as we do from the birth of Chriſt.

On his arrival at Medina, Mahomet uſed ſuch diligence in propagating his new religion, that the city was in a ſhort time entirely at his devotion. In this he was greatly aſſiſted by the animoſities which reigned between the Jews and heretical Chriſtians by whom it was inhabited. Soon after this, finding himſelf in a capacity of making head againſt his enemies, he began to commence hoſtilities againſt them. For ſome time he was very ſucceſsful; but in the year 625, happening to be defeated, his affairs had like to have been entirely ruined. Some exclaimed, that if he had been the prophet he pretended, he could not have been defeated; while others lamented the loſs of their friends and relations who were killed in battle. Mahomet, however, found means to excuſe himſelf to both parties. To the former he laid the blame of the defeat on the ſins of thoſe who followed him; and to the latter he pretended a revelation from heaven, that the end of every human creature's life is abſolutely and unalterably fixed, without regard to their own actions, or any external object whatever; ſo that all who were killed in the battle muſt infallibly have died, though they had remained in their own houſes. By this laſt piece of doctrine his followers were encouraged to fight in the moſt deſperate manner, and thus he continued ever after to be ſucceſsful. His enemies were beſides intimidated by the accounts they received of the prodigious veneration ſhewn to this impoſtor by his followers. Having ſent him a formal defiance, the meſſenger at his return told them, that though he had been at the courts both of the Greek emperors and of the Perſian monarchs, he never ſaw any prince ſo highly reſpected. Whenever the impoſtor made his ablution in order to ſay prayers, they ran and caught the water which he had uſed; when he ſpit, they licked up the ſpittle, and gathered up every hair that fell from him with great veneration. At laſt, after having entirely reduced under his ſubjection all the Arabian tribes, and prepared them for ſubduing the reſt of the world, this grand impoſtor died, in the year 632, of the effects of poiſon which had been given him three years before by a maid, who ſaid ſhe wanted to make an experiment whether he was a prophet or not, by the effect it would have upon him.

So great was the veneration which the followers of this impoſtor had for him, that it was ſome time before they would allow that he was dead; but being at laſt convinced of this, the moſt violent diſputes took place about chooſing a ſucceſſor. Notwithſtanding this diſagreement, however, matters were not carried to extremities, and the whole ſubmitted quietly to the government of Abu-Becr, who was ſtiled the khalif, or ſucceſſor of Mahomet. Under his reign the wars with other nations commenced, which ended in the ruin and deſolation of many of the fineſt countries in the world. The firſt exploit was the reduction of Irak, a country to the eaſtward of Arabia, which was accompliſhed by Khaled-Ebn-Al-Walid. The invaſion of Syria, at that time in the poſſeſſion of the Greeks, quickly followed; and as the general Abu Obeidah, employed in this expedition, appeared to be unfit for the undertaking, Khaled was appointed to ſuperſede him. Under this celebrated commander the arms of the Arabians were crowned with the moſt diſtinguiſhed ſucceſs. The Greek emperor ſent an army of 100,000 men

to the relief of the province, but they were utterly defeated, and Damaſcus, the capital of Syria, was the reward of the victors.

Abu-Becr died on the very day that the city of Damaſcus was taken, and was ſucceeded by Omar, under whom the war was carried on with aſtoniſhing ſucceſs. The whole of Syria and Paleſtine were loſt by one unfortunate engagement, fought at a place called *Yermouk*, in which the Greeks are ſaid to have had 150,000 men killed, and 40,000 taken priſoners.

The conqueſt of theſe countries was quickly followed by that of Egypt. At this time the fine library of Alexandria was committed to the flames, through the horrible ignorance or ſtupidity of the khalif himſelf. It contained 700,000 volumes; and, after the city was taken, John, a famous peripatetic philoſopher, ſurnamed *the Grammarian*, begged it of the Saracen general. This was a gift of too much conſequence to be conferred without acquainting the khalif; but to this the ſtupid barbarian replied, that if thoſe books contained what was agreeable to the koran, they would be of no uſe, ſince that book contained all neceſſary truths; but if they contained any thing contrary to it, they ought not to be ſuffered; therefore, whatever their contents were, he ordered them to be deſtroyed. Purſuant to this injunction, they were diſtributed among the public baths; where, for the ſpace of ſix months, they ſerved to ſupply the fires of thoſe places, of which there were a great number in Alexandria.

During theſe conqueſts Arabia itſelf was afflicted with a moſt grievous famine and peſtilence. Dreadful ſtorms of hail had laid waſte large tracts of country, and the city of Medina was reduced to the laſt extremity. As Egypt abounded with corn, Omar ſent orders to his general to ſend him a ſupply; on which the latter loaded ſuch a train of camels with that commodity, that the foremoſt of them is ſaid to have been entering the city of Medina, while the laſt was only ſetting out from Alexandria; but this method proving too expenſive, the canal made by the emperor Trajan, now called the Khalis, was cleared, by which a communication with Arabia was rendered much more eaſy than formerly.

While the conqueſts of the Arabians (now generally called *Saracens*, from the name of one of their tribes) went on thus rapidly in the weſt, they proceeded with equal rapidity in the eaſt. The conqueſt of Irak, which had been under the protection of the Perſian monarchs, neceſſarily brought on a war with that empire, in which the Perſians, though ten times the number of the Saracens, were utterly defeated, and their empire finally overthrown. The treaſures ſaid to have been brought out of the capital city, which the Arabs call *Al-Madayen*, are almoſt incredible; the mere gold and ſilver, amounting to the inconceivable ſum of two thouſand millions ſterling, equal to the treaſure of Sardanapalus of old. Among the fine furniture of the palace was a piece of ſilk tapeſtry, 60 cubits ſquare, which was adorned with a great variety of beautiful flowers, herbs, and plants, wrought with gold, ſilver, and jewels, the moſt valuable that could be procured. This being brought to Omar, he, with his uſual ſtupidity, cauſed it to be cut in pieces, and diſtributed among his followers.

The conqueſt of Perſia, properly ſo called, was followed by that of Meſopotamia, Armenia, and part of Aſia Minor; but, during this career of ſucceſs, an end was put to the conqueſts and life of Omar by a

Perſian

Perſian named *Abu Lulus*, who ſtabbed him in ſuch a manner, that he died in three days. The aſſaſſin being inſtantly attacked by the followers of the khalif, defended himſelf ſo deſperately, that he killed ſeven of the aſſailants, and wounded 13 more; after which, finding that he would be taken in ſpite of his utmoſt efforts, he put an end to his own life. His enmity againſt Omar proceeded from his having refuſed to remit him any part of the tribute which all thoſe who refuſed to embrace Mahometaniſm were obliged to pay.

Omar was ſucceeded by Othman, in whoſe time the iſlands of Cyprus, Aradus, Rhodes, and others in the Mediterranean were reduced, the famous coloſſus deſtroyed, Iſauria cruelly ravaged, and ſeveral of the countries about Mount Caucaſus reduced. Thus, in no longer ſpace than 27 years from the flight of Mahomet, in the miſerable manner already mentioned, to the city of Medina, his followers had entirely overthrown one great empire, viz. that of Perſia, and almoſt deſtroyed that of Conſtantinople. Had they continued to be as firmly united from this period as before, the power they had already acquired was abundantly ſufficient to have put them in poſſeſſion of all the reſt of the world. But it now happened to them as to other great conquerors; diviſions began to ariſe, and the diſunion among them continuing to increaſe, firſt put a ſtop to the rapidity of their conqueſts; then broke the empire into ſeveral parts, which, by their continual wars with one another, at laſt proved the total ruin of it. The firſt diſſenſion aroſe about the ſucceſſion to the khalifate, which Mahomet had neglected to give any certain directions about. Ali, his ſon-in-law, naturally thought it belonged to him; but to render this high office hereditary was an innovation which could not be attempted. Ayeſha, the beſt beloved wife of Mahomet, was ſtill alive, and ſhe had contracted an irreconcileable hatred againſt Ali, on account, as is ſaid, of his having diſcovered to Mahomet her infidelity to him; and therefore ſhe took every method to oppoſe and prevent him from being elected khalif. As Ali, however, had been one of the greateſt companions of Mahomet, had once ſaved his life, and was highly eſteemed on account of his extraordinary valour, her oppoſition at this time proved ineffectual, and Ali was elected. Her next ſtep therefore was to raiſe diſturbances in the empire, and thus a civil war was produced, in which Ayeſha was defeated and taken priſoner, but treated with great kindneſs by the conqueror. Ali, however, notwithſtanding this victory, found himſelf unable to withſtand the oppoſition he met with, and this the more eſpecially as his good nature and other virtues, inſtead of endearing him to his countrymen, rendered him the object of their contempt, and a prey to their mean and ſcandalous artifices. He was therefore formally depoſed; and though his valour was abundantly ſufficient to have retrieved his affairs, he was abandoned by his men, and at laſt aſſaſſinated. His ſon Haſan ſucceeded to the khalifate; but being entirely deſtitute of abilities to maintain his ground among ſuch a turbulent and reſtleſs people, he reſigned his ſovereignty to Moawiyah, who had been his father's great antagoniſt all along. The new khalif fixed his reſidence at Damaſcus in Syria, and continued to extend his conqueſts to the eaſt, where he proved ſucceſsful againſt the Turks; but miſcarried in an enterpriſe againſt Conſtantinople, which his ſon Yezid beſieged for a long time in vain. In this ſiege fell Abu-Ayub, one of Mahomet's companions, who had been with him in ſome of his moſt dangerous expeditions, and whoſe name is held in ſuch

veneration

veneration by the followers of that impoſtor, that it was cuſtomary for the Ottoman princes to gird on their ſwords at his tomb.

During the lifetime of Moawiyah matters went on pretty well; but his ſon Yezid was obliged to defend his right to the ſovereignty by force of arms. During the courſe of this war the city of Medina was taken and plundered by the khalif's forces, notwithſtanding the terrible denunciations by Mahomet of the divine wrath againſt the perſon who firſt ſhould plunder that city. Mecca was next beſieged, and would undoubtedly have ſhared the ſame fate, had not certain accounts of the khalif's death arrived juſt as the troops were on the point of breaking into it.

Yezid was ſucceeded by his ſon Moawiyah II. but he being of a weak and ſickly conſtitution, reſigned his dignity in a few days, after which the former commotions returned. The whole empire was now rent into two potent factions, who turned their arms againſt each other, and fought with the utmoſt fury. At the ſame time various other parties of rebels made their appearance, who, notwithſtanding their being of an inferior note to the great factions above-mentioned, did not fail to give abundance of trouble. During theſe troubles, the tide of conqueſt, as may naturally be ſuppoſed, was ſtopped; but by the 76th year of the Hegira, matters being once more compoſed, the Saracens had again leiſure to turn their arms againſt other nations. This year is alſo remarkable for the firſt money coined in Arabia. They now extended their conqueſts in Africa, and ſo effectually demoliſhed the city of Carthage, that not a veſtige of it was allowed to remain. Two years after, a dreadful revolt happened in Perſia; where Abdalrahman the governor rebelled againſt the khalif, and near an hundred battles were fought before he could be reduced. The Greeks alſo now met with ſuch ſucceſs in their wars with the Arabs, that no fewer than 200,000 of the latter were deſtroyed in their various engagements. During theſe calamitous events, the khalif Abdalmalec died; of whom it is reported, that he had ſuch a ſtinking breath, that the flies which ſettled on his face were inſtantly killed by it.

After the death of this khalif, the commotions ceaſed for ſome time, and the Arabs once more extended their conqueſts in ſuch a manner as to threaten the whole world with ſubjection. Al Walid, who ſucceeded Abdalmalec, the very firſt year of his reign, over-run all Bukharia, Sogdiana, and other parts of Tartary. Others of his generals entirely ſubdued the country between Perſia and India, called by the Arabs *Al Sind*. In the weſt, conſiderable progreſs was made in the conqueſt of Aſia Minor, and Spain was likewiſe invaded and ſubdued, as has been related in the hiſtory of that country. During all theſe conqueſts, however, the Arabs muſt have been in a very miſerable ſituation, if we may judge from what is related of Al Hejaj governor of Irak, viz. that during the time of his adminiſtration, which continued 20 years, he put to death 120,000 people, and ſuffered 50,000 men, and 30,000 women to be ſtarved to death in priſon.

The power of Al Walid was now ſo great, that he determined to make himſelf maſter of Conſtantinople, which probably would have become the ſeat of his empire; and for this purpoſe he made ſuch preparations as ſeemed to enſure ſucceſs in a ſingle campaign; but before this could be put in execution, he was taken off by death, and was ſucceeded in the ſovereignty by his brother Soliman. Under him the empire was aug-

mented by the reduction of ſome provinces in the eaſt, and the expedition againſt Conſtantinople was carried on under the conduct of one Moſlema; but this enterpriſe, like the former attempt, was attended with very bad ſucceſs. No fewer than 120,000 men periſhed by the ſword, or by famine, and thoſe who remained were reduced to ſuch extremity, that they were forced to live on the bark of trees, hides, the moſt nauſeous animals, and even the dead bodies of their companions.

From this time the Saracen empire began to decline. Violent commotions took place in many parts of the empire; but the firſt ſevere ſtroke was the revolt of Abdelrahman, governor of Spain, whom the khalif was not able to reduce. The reigning prince at this time was named Al Manſur, the moſt remarkable tranſaction of whoſe reign was the transferring the imperial ſeat to Bagdad on the Tigris. The reaſon of this was an attempt to aſſaſſinate him, by which he was ſo much diſguſted with the Arabs in general, that he determined to live at as great a diſtance from them as poſſible. By this removal, the country of Arabia properly ſo called, loſt at once the importance it had acquired, being now ſcarcely conſidered as a part of the khalif's dominions. Nay, the inhabitants ſeem to have conſidered themſelves as having the ſame right to invade and plunder the territories of the khalif, as they did thoſe of other nations. Thus, even while Al-Manſur was yet alive, we find them making irruptions into Syria and Meſopotamia, as if they had deſigned to conquer theſe countries over again for themſelves. Here then our hiſtory of Arabia might properly end; but for the reader's ſatisfaction, we ſhall give a ſhort account of the empire of the khalifs of Bagdad, till its final overthrow by the Tartars in 1258.

Al Manſur, at the time of his removing to Bagdad, was poſſeſſed of immenſe dominions in the eaſt, with all the country to the weſt, as far as the Mediterranean Sea, beſides an unlimited tract of territory in Africa, which owned his authority. This he ſeems to have enjoyed in peace till his death, which happened as he was on a pilgrimage from Bagdad to Mecca. An hundred graves were dug for his body, that his true place of interment might be the more effectually concealed. This khalif was of an exceſſively covetous diſpoſition, in conſequence of which, he greatly oppreſſed his ſubjects, particularly the Chriſtians, from whom he exacted the moſt intolerable tribute. His avarice is ſaid to have gone to ſuch an extravagant length, that he refuſed to give his cook any other wages than the heads and legs of the animals dreſſed in his kitchen, and obliged him to provide fuel and utenſils at his own expence. In conſequence of this exceſſive avarice, he left behind him an immenſe treaſure, part of which Al-Mohdi his ſucceſſor diſſipated in bribing a competitor to give up his pretenſions to the khalifate.

The firſt diſturbances which now took place in the empire were occaſioned by a falſe prophet named Al-Mokanna. This impoſtor, however, being reduced to extremity by the khalif's forces, ſhut himſelf up in a fortreſs, where he gave poiſon to all that were in it. After this he burnt their bodies, and laſtly threw himſelf into the flames, or, as ſome ſay, jumped into a tub of aquafortis, which left no veſtige of him remaining but the hair. On the entrance of the beſiegers into the caſtle, therefore, they were ſurpiſed to find no living creature in it; and as A'-Mokanna had given out that the Deity reſided in his perſon, and conſequently that

he was immortal, this impious tenet was ſpread far and wide, in conſequence of his death in the manner above-mentioned. The ſecret is ſaid to have been diſcovered by one of his concubines, who hid herſelf in order to avoid the fate of the reſt. The ſect who put confidence in him continued for a conſiderable time to expect his re-appearance, as he had promiſed, in the form of an old man riding upon a greyiſh coloured beaſt, who was to put them in poſſeſſion of the whole earth. In the year 786 the ſun, as is related by the hiſtorians of thoſe times, loſt his light one morning ſoon after he aroſe, and a preternatural darkneſs continued till noon *. The ſame year the war with the Greeks was renewed with great ſucceſs under Haroun Al-Raſchid, the khalif's ſon, by whom the empreſs Irene was obliged to pay a tribute of 70,000 pieces of gold annually, in order to be allowed to live in peace.

Al-Mohdi was poiſoned by one of his concubines by miſtake. She had deſigned to deſtroy one of her rivals, whom ſhe ſuſpected of having too great an aſcendant over the khalif, and for that purpoſe gave her a poiſoned pear. This was given by the latter, without any ſuſpicion, to the khalif, who no ſooner eat it than he expired in the greateſt agonies. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Haroun Al-Raſchid, ſo much celebrated both in the romances and hiſtories of Arabia. He was undoubtedly the greateſt prince that ever ſat on the throne of Bagdad, and though he could not recover the dominion of Spain, the empire of the Saracens may well be ſuppoſed to have been at its utmoſt height during his reign. He poſſeſſed the countries of Syria, Paleſtine, Perſia, Armenia, Natolia, Media, or *Aderbijan*, Babylonia, Aſſyria, Sindia, Sijiſtan, Khoraſan, Tabreſtan, Jorjan, Zableſtan, or *Sableſtan*, Mawaralnahr, or Great Bukharia, Egypt, Libya, Mauritania, &c.; ſo that his empire, though leſs extenſive than that of ſome of his predeceſſors, extended farther than the Roman empire had ever done. Though he did not enlarge his dominions by conqueſt like moſt of the former khalifs, he was remarkably ſucceſsful and fortunate in all his undertakings. A ſurpriſing inſtance of his good fortune was, that having thrown into the Tigris a very valuable ring for fear of being deprived of it by his brother, it was found by the divers without any difficulty; though he could direct them no other way than by throwing a ſtone from the bridge of Bagdad into the river, nearly about the ſame place where he had thrown the ring. During the moſt of his reign he carried on a war with the Greek emperor Nicephorus, whom he always defeated, and at laſt obliged to ſubmit to his own terms. He is ſaid to have been in poſſeſſion of a ſword ſo excellently tempered, that it was capable of cutting others aſunder without any detriment to itſelf. A moſt remarkable proof of which was, that before the commencement of hoſtilities with the emperor, the latter ſent him a preſent of ſome fine new ſwords, thus letting the khalif know that he was more inclined to war than peace; but all theſe Haroun cut aſunder with his own ſword above mentioned, and that without the leaſt detriment to the blade; thus at once manifeſting the excellence of its temper and the ſtrength of his own arm.

Towards the end of Haroun's reign a rebellion broke out in Khoraſan, and, by degrees became ſo formidable, that the khalif found it neceſſary

* Such events have been related by ſo many hiſtorians, and at ſo many different times, that the truth of them can ſcarce be doubted. The darkneſs is ſuppoſed to be occaſioned by a comet coming between the ſun and earth.

ceſſary to march againſt the rebels in perſon, but died by the way at a town named Tus in Khoraſan, having, according to the oriental hiſtorians, been warned of his death at that place in a dream ſome time before. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Al-Amin; who, far from imitating the example of his father, proved a moſt debauched and wicked prince; endeavouring, in the very beginning of his reign, to exclude his brother Al-Mamun from the ſucceſſion. This produced a civil war betwixt the two brothers, in which Al Amin proved unſucceſsful, and being at laſt murdered, Al-Mamun was raiſed to the dignity of khalif. In gratitude to his general, Thaher, by whoſe means he had conquered his brother's forces, Al-Mamun conferred upon him the government of Khoraſan, with almoſt unlimited power; ſo that, from this year, 827, we may date the diſmemberment of this province from the Saracen empire. In the reign of Al Moteſem, the ſucceſſor of Al Mamun, one Babec a falſe prophet raiſed a very dangerous rebellion in Perſian Irak. This impoſtor ſupported himſelf againſt the whole power of the khalif's forces for more than 20 years, in which time he deſtroyed an incredible number of Mahometans, of whom he ſpared neither men, women, nor child who fell into his hands. A Turk, ſurnamed *Afſhin*, who had been brought to the court of the khalif as a ſlave, and had the reputation of being a great warrior, was ſent againſt him. In the firſt engagement Babec was defeated with the loſs of 60,000 men; and, next year, having tried his fortune again in the field, he was overthrown with the loſs of 100,000. This obliged him to take ſhelter among the Gordyæan mountains, where he fortified himſelf in ſuch a manner as rendered it very difficult to reduce him. However, after having moved from one caſtle to another, all of which Afſhin reduced with invincible patience, he was at laſt obliged to ſurrender, and was put to a cruel death. This calamitous war was followed by an irruption of the Greeks, who cruelly ravaged the territories of the khalif, deſtroying Sozopetra, the place of his nativity, notwithſtanding his earneſt intreaties to the contrary. This he revenged by entirely deſtroying the city of Amorium; but notwithſtanding the violent animoſity of both parties againſt each other, it does not appear that any great exploit was performed by either. This khalif being diſpleaſed by the people of Bagdad, who frequently diſturbed him with their commotions, determined to remove the ſeat of empire from that place entirely; with which view he built the city of *Sarra Manray* in the Arabian Irak, but it does not appear that ever this reſolution was put in execution. After his death the affairs of the empire fell into the utmoſt confuſion; the moſt violent commotions took place in the city of Bagdad; the Turks, who had for ſome time been employed as mercenaries, and raiſed to the firſt employments in the ſtate, by degrees aſſumed the whole power, raiſed and depoſed khalifs at pleaſure, while the Zenjians, a people from Nubia in Africa, made the moſt violent invaſion under one Al-Habib, which could ſcarce be repulſed. For ſome time they continued to make incurſions to the very gates of Bagdad, overthrew the armies of the khalif, took ſeveral cities, and committed the greateſt devaſtations. They continued ſucceſsful till the year 880, when Al-Mowaffek, the reigning khalif, having attacked Al-Habib with an army of 10,000 cavalry and a few infantry, entirely defeated him, notwithſtanding his vaſt ſuperiority in numbers. After this he gained ſeveral other battles, recovered moſt of the towns he had taken, and releaſed 5000 women who had been thrown into priſon by theſe barbarians. The khalif

then poſted himſelf before the city, called Al-Madiya, which Al-Habib had choſen for his own reſidence, and having quickly reduced it, burnt all the ſhipping in the harbour, and, having thoroughly plundered, he entirely diſmantled it. He next advanced to Al-Mokhtara, another ſtrong city of the Zenjians, which he at laſt took by ſtorm, though Al-Habib himſelf was in the neighbourhood with an army of 300,000 men. The Zenjians were now every where defeated, many of their chiefs ſlain, and their forces ſo completely diſperſed, that they could no longer be rallied. Next year, however, Al-Habib, having again collected an army, continued to oppoſe the khalif, and diſpute every inch of ground with great obſtinacy, and even obliged his antagoniſt to retire. At laſt being repeatedly overthrown, and his capital once more taken and deſtroyed, he was obliged to fly into the moſt diſtant parts of his dominions, where having ſoon fallen into the hands of the victor, he was inſtantly put to death, and his head ſent through a great part of the country which he had ſo long infeſted.

The defeat and death of Al-Habib did not reſtore the Saracen empire to its former luſtre. Egypt and Syria were entirely fallen off, as well as the other African provinces, beſides Khoraſan formerly mentioned. After the deſtruction of Al-Habib, a bloody war commenced between the ſultan of Egypt and khalif, in which the latter was totally defeated in ſeveral engagements, and in conſequence of this ſeveral other provinces were diſmembered from the empire, ſo that the dominions of the ſultan extended from the Euphrates to the borders of Nubia and Ethiopia.

Al-Mowaffek died in the year 900 of the elephantiaſis, or leproſy, in ſuch a diſtreſſed ſituation by his diſeaſe, that he could not help remarking, that of 100,000 men of whom his army conſiſted, not one was ſo miſerable as himſelf! Such is the inſufficiency of human grandeur to procure happineſs! After his death a new ſet of miſcreants began to make their appearance. Theſe were the *Karmatians*, whoſe origin is ſaid to have been from a poor fellow named *Karmata*, who came from Khuzeſtan to the villages near Cufa, pretending to great ſanctity of life, and that God had enjoined him to pray 50 times a day; inviting alſo people to join a certain prieſt of the family of Mahomet; which way of life he continued till he had made a great party, out of whom he choſe twelve, as his apoſtles to govern the reſt, and propagate his doctrines. He aſſumed alſo the title of prince, and obliged every one of his firſt followers to pay him a dinar *per annum*. But Al-Haidam, the governor of that province, finding that the people neglected their work in order to ſay ſuch a multitude of prayers, caſt Karmata into priſon, and ſwore that he ſhould die. This being overheard by a female ſlave belonging to the governor, ſhe, out of compaſſion, ſtole the key of the priſon from below her maſter's head at night, releaſed Karmata, and reſtored the key to its place. His eſcape was inſtantly ſpread abroad as miraculous, and the ſect became ſo numerous, that there was no poſſibility of reducing them to ſubjection. As the khalif's power conſiſted chiefly in the juriſdiction which he was ſuppoſed to exerciſe as ſucceſſor of Mahomet, every new ſect which tended to ſet up a ſpiritual paſtor different from himſelf was an infringement of his prerogative, and hence the Karmatians proved more troubleſome enemies than the moſt deſperate rebels could have been. Violent and continual wars took place, the event of which at laſt was, that the empire was ſtill farther reduced; and in the year 925 it was divided into twelve different ſtates, nothing remaining to the

khalif

khalif but the city of Bagdad, and the authority he was ſuppoſed to derive from Mahomet. Thus, however, they continued to be regarded, and conſiderable reſpect was ſhewn them till the year 1258, when Hulaku, the Tartar, having conquered an immenſe tract of country to the eaſtward, at laſt made himſelf maſter of Bagdad alſo. The reigning khalif, Al-Moſtaſem Billah, when he ſaw that no farther reſiſtance could be made, went out to meet and make his ſubmiſſion to the conqueror; but the latter, inſtead of receiving him with kindneſs, trampled him under his horſe's feet, and afterwards cauſed him to be ſewed up in a leathern ſack, and thrown into the Tigris. After the city was taken, alſo, theſe diabolical conquerors maſſacred a vaſt number of the people, and at laſt ſet it on fire. Thus an end was put to the empire of Mahomet; and though the Arabs have ſtill continued in a great meaſure independent of every foreign power, they have never been able to erect an empire in any part of the world. Their divided ſtate and wandering way of life indeed render them very unfit for doing ſo. Mahomet, by uniting them together on the footing of religion, enabled them to exert their whole power; but the regard they ſhewed to him is now greatly diminiſhed, and it is very improbable that any motive in time to come can ever be ſufficiently ſtrong to unite them in the ſame manner; not to mention that the ſtate of the world at preſent cannot admit of ſuch extenſive conqueſts as formerly took place.

CHINA.

THIS empire, ſo famous among modern travellers, is, comparatively ſpeaking, but lately diſcovered by Europeans. The accounts we have of it are moſtly taken from thoſe of miſſionaries ſent thither by the Pope, who have long ſince been expelled, or at leaſt have ceaſed to emigrate thither from Europe. The accounts they gave, even at the time when they had the beſt opportunities of being informed, were juſtly ſuſpected, and much more muſt thoſe be of ſucceeding travellers, who have it ſcarce in their power to enter the empire farther than what is abſolutely neceſſary for the purpoſes of trade. On account of this want of information, therefore, which is acknowledged even by M. Groſier, the lateſt writer on the ſubject, we muſt be much more brief in our deſcription of this celebrated empire than otherwiſe we would wiſh to be. The following account of the ſituation, &c. of the empire is taken from the author juſt mentioned.

Boundaries, Diviſions, &c. China is bounded on the north by Tartary, from which it is ſeparated by a wall five hundred leagues in length; on the eaſt by the ſea; on the weſt by lofty mountains and deſarts; and towards

towards the ſouth by the ocean, the kingdoms of Tong king, Laos, and Cochin-china. It is divided into the following provinces.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Pe-tcheli	Pekin
Kiang-nan	Kiang-ning-fou
Kiang-ſi	Nan-tchang-fou
Fo kien	Fou-tcheou-fou
Tche-kiang	Hang tcheou-fou
Hou-quang	Vou-tchang-fou
Ho-nan	Cai-fong-fou
Chang-tong	Tſi-nan-fou
Chan-ſi	Tai-yuen-fou
Chen-ſi	Si-ngan-fou
Se-tchuen	Tching-tou-fou
Quang-tong	Canton
Quang-ſi	Quei-ling-fou
Yun-nan	Yionan-fou
Koei-Tcheou	Koei-Yang

States Tributary to China.

Corea
Tong king
Cochin-china
Thibet
The country of Ha-mie
The Iſles of Lieou-kieou

CHINESE TARTARY

This is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the eaſt by the Gulf of Kamtſchtka and the Eaſtern Sea; on the ſouth by China, and on the weſt by the country of the Kalmouks; who are eſtabliſhed between the Caſpian Sea and Caſghar.

EASTERN CHINESE TARTARY

Extends north and ſouth, from the 41ſt to the 55th degree of north latitude; and eaſt and weſt from about the 137th degree of longitude, as far as the Eaſtern Sea. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the ſouth by the Gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the eaſt by the Eaſtern Sea; and on the weſt by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments.

Chen-yang	Mougden
Kirin	Kirin
Tritcicar	Tritcicar

WESTERN CHINESE TARTARY.

This vaſt tract, denominated the country of the Moguls, is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the eaſt by Eaſtern Chineſe Tartary; on the ſouth by the great wall and Leao-tong, and on the weſt by Independent Tartary.

The Tartars who inhabit this country, have neither towns, villages, nor houſes; they form themſelves only into wandering hordes, and live under plain tents, which they tranſport from one place to another, according to the temperature of the different ſeaſons, or as the wants of their flocks require.

Name. This is moſt generally ſuppoſed to be derived from a word in the Chineſe language, which ſignifies *the middle*; the natives imagining that their country is ſituated exactly in the middle of the earth.

Mountains, Rivers, &c. The greateſt part of China, excepting ſome of the northern provinces, is a level country without any remarkable mountains. Some hills indeed it has, which are covered with verdure to the top; and many of them are cut into ſtrange and fantaſtic ſhapes by the natives. There are many large rivers, particularly the Kiam, or Blue River, the Crocceus, or Yellow River, Argun, Yamour, &c. water met with in China is generally very indifferent, and ſcarce fit

to

to be drunk till it has been boiled. There are only two bays of any conſequence, viz. thoſe of Canton and Nanking.

Foreſts. Theſe are but of ſmall extent in China, as the people ſuffer no trees to grow but ſuch as are either very ornamental, or abſolutely neceſſary for the purpoſes of life. The wood commonly grows on the ſides of mountains, and is conveyed to diſtant places by means of the rivers and canals with which the country abounds.

Canals. Theſe are more numerous in China than in any other part of the world, and they are there conſtructed in ſuch a commodious manner as is no where to be equalled. Neither can any other country boaſt of ſuch extenſive canals, or of any which ſo effectually anſwer the purpoſes of commerce. Some of them are upwards of 1000 miles in length, and of ſufficient depth to carry large veſſels. Theſe are lined with hewn ſtone, with commodious quays of the ſame materials, and ſometimes furniſhed with bridges of a very ſurpriſing ſtructure. The greateſt precaution is taken where the canal happens to croſs a river, or where it is expoſed to torrents from a riſing ground, ſo that in all caſes the ſafety of the paſſenger is provided for. By theſe, and the fine variety obſerved on their borders, the country is rendered exceedingly delightful, and they beſides render ſome places fertile which are not ſo naturally.

Air, Soil, and Produce. The air in the northern parts is very cold, but very hot in the ſouth, and more temperate in the middle parts. The ſoil produces every thing that can miniſter to the neceſſity or luxury of the inhabitants. Some trees are peculiar to the country, particularly the tallow-tree, which has a ſhort trunk, ſmooth bark, with red heart ſhaped leaves, and crooked branches; being about the ſize of a common cherry-tree. The fruit has all the properties of tallow, but it has a ſtrong ſmell, and does not burn ſo clear; however, the natives have a method of manufacturing it with oil, ſo as to ſerve for candles. Some of the Chineſe trees yield a kind of flour; others are of the nature of pepper. The tree which yields the fine black Japan varniſh grows alſo in this country, but it is of a very poiſonous quality. The fineſt fruit-trees are met with in China, but as the people cannot be perſuaded to practiſe grafting, the fruits are much inferior to what they might be. The tea-ſhrub grows plentifully throughout the whole empire; and it may well ſeem ſurpriſing, that, notwithſtanding the immenſe conſumpt of this commodity, we ſhould ſtill be in a great meaſure ignorant of its cultivation. According to the beſt accounts, however, the ſhrub is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its too great luxuriancy. The green and bohea are ſaid to grow upon the ſame plant, but the latter muſt be prepared in a certain manner in order to give it a deeper colour, and prevent it from having a bad effect on the ſtomach. Some kinds are of a much finer flavour than others; and the fineſt, called *the flower of tea*, is ſuppoſed to be imported over land to Ruſſia. The Portugueſe are thought to have made uſe of tea long before it was known in this country. It appeared, however, to have been known ſome time before the reſtoration, as it is mentioned in the firſt act of parliament which ſettled the exciſe on Charles II. in 1660. It was rendered common at the Britiſh court by queen Catherine of Liſbon. Ginſeing, a famous Chineſe root, is now found to be common in America, and its virtues have been greatly over-rated. Silk is produced in China in the greateſt abundance, and vaſt quantities are exported to other countries.

Metals

Metals and Minerals. China abounds with all kinds of metals, and is by ſome ſaid to produce a kind of white copper, but this is juſtly ſuſpected to be a factitious ſubſtance. It is a maxim of the Chineſe government not to allow a great abundance of gold in the empire, and therefore the mines of that metal, frequent throughout the country, are but ſlightly worked; the current coin is ſupplied by grains picked up in torrents and rivers. There are ſilver mines in the province of Honan, which ſupply the currency of that metal.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Cuſtoms. The Chineſe are univerſally allowed to be a very ingenious people, but are in general accounted extremely diſhoneſt, and can readily cheat thoſe of any other nation, though it is obſerved that a native of China can be cheated by none but one of his own countrymen. It may perhaps, however, admit of ſome doubt whether we ought to give implicit credit to accounts of this kind, as they have been generally drawn up by thoſe who were acquainted only with ſome maritime towns, without having acceſs to the internal parts of the empire. In their perſons they are middle-ſized, with broad faces, ſmall black eyes, and ſhort noſes. The women have a florid but delicate complexion, roſy and plump lips, ſmall eyes, black hair, and regular features. Both men and women appear to have ſtrange ideas of beauty. The men pluck up the hairs of their beard by the roots, leaving only a few ſtraggling ones on their chins. They are obliged by their Tartar princes to cut off their hair, leaving only a lock on the crown like Mahometans. In the northern parts of the kingdom the people are fair, but more ſwarthy towards the ſouth, and the fatter any perſon is, the more handſome he is reckoned. Thoſe who are not expoſed to the ſun have a delicate complexion, and thoſe who pretend to learning attempt to ſhew it by letting the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length. The principal beauty of a woman is reckoned to conſiſt in the beauty of her feet; and, to prevent them from attaining to the natural ſize, they are cramped in an iron ſhoe, which is kept on till they come of age, enlarging it only now and then, and that as little as poſſible. Hence the ancles are ſwelled and clumſy beyond meaſure, but this is accounted no defect; neither do the fair ones themſelves ever complain of the torment which this unnatural confinement muſt neceſſarily produce. By ſuch abſurd treatment, however, the Chineſe women walk very aukwardly, and indeed have ſcarce any uſe of their feet. M. Groſier mentions a full grown woman's ſhoe that was only ſix inches in length.

Nothing can be more ridiculous than the formality and ceremony conſtantly practiſed among the Chineſe, eſpecially by the people of quality when giving or receiving viſits. So multifarious indeed are theſe ceremonies, that it ſeems wonderful how they can be got through in a conſiſtency with the ordinary affairs of life. The ceremonies we ſpeak of, however, have probably been invented to impreſs the people in general with that awe and reſpect for their ſuperiors, which, in China, is the foundation of all government.

The population of China is immenſe, being eſtimated by M. Groſier at no leſs than 200 millions; hence, notwithſtanding the amazing induſtry of the people, a dearth is frequently occaſioned by their numbers; and many of them, though they inhabit as plentiful a country as any in the world, are moſt wretchedly poor. Thoſe who cannot ſupport their children frequently expoſe them, or float them on a river,

where they no doubt frequently periſh, but are ſometimes taken care of by people of fortune who happen to come within ſight of them, or hear their cries.

Marriages are generally concluded by the parents when the parties are perfect children. It is reckoned a reproach among the Chineſe not to have children; and next to that the greateſt diſgrace is to have females; hence, if a poor woman happens to have three or four female children ſucceſſively, ſhe will frequently drown them, or expoſe them on the high-way. The funerals are conducted with great ceremony and ſolemnity. None are allowed to be buried within the walls of any city; nor is it allowable to bring a corpſe into a town if the perſon died in the country. A table is kept in every houſe in China, on which the maſter writes the names of his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, and before which the whole family frequently proſtrate themſelves, and burn incenſe. When the father of a family dies, the name of the great-grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

Dreſs. This is various according to the quality of the perſon. The men wear caps on their heads ſomewhat reſembling a bell, and thoſe of people of quality are ornamented with jewels. The reſt of the dreſs conſiſts of a veſt and ſaſh, with a coat or gown thrown over them, a pair of drawers, and ſilk boots quilted with cotton. In the ſouthern provinces the ladies wear nothing upon their heads, ſometimes having their hair drawn up in a net, and ſometimes diſhevelled. The moſt material difference betwixt their dreſs and that of the man is, that the woman's gown has very large open ſleeves; but the dreſs both of men and women varies according to the climate of the province in which they live.

Language. This is exceedingly different from all others as yet known in the world, and has this very extraordinary ſingularity, that there is no alphabet belonging to it. Hence we may eaſily conclude that it is extremely difficult to be comprehended by foreigners, and indeed we are told that it is no eaſy matter for the natives themſelves to comprehend it. It is ſaid to contain only 330 radical words, all of which are of one ſyllable; but each of theſe is pronounced with ſuch various modulations of voice, and ſuch odd geſticulations, each of which give it a different meaning, that nothing can be conceived more difficult than to attain to a full knowledge of them all. Such Europeans as have attempted to accommodate the Chineſe language to our alphabet, remark eleven different accents and modulations, ſome of them very compounded, by which the meanings of the ſame monoſyllable are determined. The characters uſed in writing are amazingly numerous, being calculated at no fewer than 80,000; and hence we may ſuppoſe the Chineſe writing rather to be a kind of hieroglyphics, than any thing reſembling writing properly ſo called. The attainment of a knowledge in theſe characters conſtitutes a great part of the Chineſe learning, and to write them well is reckoned an extraordinary accompliſhment.

Learning. In this, as in all other matters, the Chineſe are very ſingular. They have no idea of what we call beauty in writing, regularity in architecture, or nature in painting. In gardening and planning out their grounds, they are ſaid ſometimes to hit upon what is ſublime and beautiful. They are very expert arithmeticians, and can go through the operations with ſurpriſing accuracy, though in a manner ſomewhat

different from Europeans. To the latter, however, they are obliged for their knowledge in mathematics, and the arts depending upon them. Before the arrival of the Jeſuits in China, they had no apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and even the arts introduced among them by theſe miſſionaries were but of very ſhort duration, being long ſince entirely loſt, without any probability of their revival. Printing is ſaid to have been practiſed among them long before it was known in Europe; but this is to be underſtood only of block-printing, which is the only kind in uſe among them at this day. The acquiſition of any true learning is extremely difficult to the Chineſe, on account of the vaſt number of characters which muſt be known before a perſon can make any progreſs: however, there is no part of the world where learning is more amply rewarded. The literati are the only nobility known in China. By means of their learning, people of the loweſt rank quickly attain to the higheſt preferments; and it is obſerved, that in no country of the world are wealth and honours ſo eaſily acceſſible to the lower claſſes of people. The Chineſe divide their literature into four claſſes: 1. That of the *king*, or the ſacred books, containing the principles of their religion, morality, and government. The books on this ſubject have alſo ſome curious, though obſcure records, relative to the important matters they treat of. There are likewiſe ſome hiſtorical tracts; though hiſtory is generally ſuppoſed to form a claſs by itſelf; but theſe are admitted on account of the relation they bear to religion and government. 2. The books called *Su* and *Tche* comprehend the whole body of Chineſe hiſtory. 3. The *Tſu*, or *Tſe*, comprehend philoſophy, mathematics, phyſic, aſtronomy, &c.; and 4. The *Tcie* comprehends all their poetry, plays, romances, &c. The Chineſe are ſaid to have applied themſelves, in the beginning of the tenth and eleventh centuries, to the ſtudy of natural philoſophy, but certainly made very little progreſs in it; and even ſince they have applied more ſeriouſly in conſequence of their increaſed connection with the Europeans, they have fallen greatly ſhort of the latter in this ſcience.

It is certain that the Chineſe were acquainted with fire-arms long before they were made uſe of in Europe, and employed them in their wars againſt Jenghiz Khan and the Moguls. They had no knowledge of muſquetry, however, and in time forgot, in a great meaſure, the uſe of cannon alſo, which they were again made acquainted with by ſome of the Jeſuit miſſionaries. The induſtry of the Chineſe, both in the numerous manufactures carried on by them, and their labours in the field, is quite ſurpriſing.

Antiquities and Curioſities. Among the antiquities of this empire we muſt reckon in the firſt place that immenſe wall which ſeparates it from Tartary, and was built, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars, for an extent of 1200 or 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies, from the province of Chan-ſi to that of Kiang-ſi, between the provinces of Peking and Leatong. It is built in moſt places of brick and mortar, which in general has been ſo well prepared, that there are as yet few ſymptoms of decay, though it has ſtood 1800 years. It begins with a huge bulwark of ſtone raiſed in the ſea in the province of Pe-tcheli to the eaſtward of Pekin, and almoſt in the ſame latitude. It is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and caſed with bricks, and is from 20 to 25 feet high. It is ſufficiently broad on the top for five or ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt with eaſe.

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The triumphal arches met with in various parts of this empire, are another kind of artificial curioſities. Their architecture differ conſiderably from that of the Greeks and Romans, notwithſtanding which, they are conſtructed in a ſtyle at once ſuperb and beautiful. There are ſaid to be 1100 of theſe throughout the whole extent of the empire, all of which have been erected to the memory of their great men, with vaſt labour and expence. Two hundred of them are particularly magnificent. The bridges in China are deſervedly accounted a ſpecies of natural curioſities. They are built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly faſtened together by chains, yet in ſuch a manner, that they can eaſily be ſeparated to let veſſels paſs up or down the river. Some paſs from one mountain to another, conſiſting only of a ſingle arch. There is one over the river Saffrany, which conſiſts alſo of a ſingle arch, though no leſs than 400 cubits long, and 500 feet high, and ſome, in the internal parts of the kingdom, are ſaid to be ſtill more wonderful. The artificial mountains, on the tops of of which are temples, monaſteries, and other buildings, muſt likewiſe be accounted wonderful monuments of human induſtry. The Chineſe towers, commonly known in Europe by the name of *Pagodas*, are likewiſe objects well worthy of admiration, and are great ornaments to the country in general. They are conſtructed by a regular order, and are embelliſhed with the moſt expenſive ornaments of carving, gilding, &c. The moſt admired one is at Nankin, and is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter. It is lined with Chineſe tiles, for which reaſon it has obtained the name of the *Porcelain Tower*. Their temples are remarkably ſpacious, but built in a whimſical taſte, fantaſtically adorned, and filled with idols of abominable uglineſs. The people are extremely fond of bells, and there is one at Pekin, which is ſaid to weigh 120,000 pounds, though the ſound of it is diſagreeable. All the buildings of China, (the Pagodas excepted, which are built by ſome certain rule) have a kind of wildneſs and extravagance about them, which, however, is by no means devoid of magnificence, and being ſuſceptible of every kind of ornament, affords a very pleaſing variety to the eyes of an European.

Principal Cities. The number of theſe is immenſe, and moſt of them entirely unknown to Europeans. The empire is ſaid to contain 4400 walled cities, the chief of which are Pekin, Canton, and Nankin. The firſt ſtands in a very fertile plain, about 20 miles diſtant from the great wall. It is of an oblong ſquare figure, and divided into two cities. That in which the emperor's palace ſtands has got the appellation of the Tartar City, becauſe the houſes were given up to the Tartars on the acceſſion of the preſent family to the throne of China. The Chineſe being thus driven out, built a new city without the walls of the former, which being joined to the other, forms an irregular maſs of about ſix leagues in compaſs. The walls and gates of this city are no leſs than 50 cubits in height, ſo that the whole is hid by them; and they are ſo broad, that the centinels placed on them ſit on horſeback. The walls are aſcended by ſeveral eaſy ſlopes within the city. The beauty of the gates conſiſts entirely in their ſtupendous height, which, at a diſtance gives them a noble appearance. Their arches are built of marble, and all the other parts of them of large bricks cemented with mortar of the moſt excellent kind. The largeſt ſtreets are about 120 feet in breadth, and a league in length; and the whole of this vaſt extent is frequently taken up with ſhops, in which they ſell ſilk and China ware, affording

affording a moſt agreeable proſpect. Before each of theſe ſhops is a board, not leſs than 20 feet high, erected on a kind of ſmall pedeſtal, and inſcribed with the names of the commodities ſold by the merchant. The grandeur of the imperial palace conſiſts more in its vaſt extent, the multitude of its buildings, courts, &c. than in the regularity of its architecture. There is a little town within the walls inhabited by the officers of the court, and a vaſt number of artificers, whom the emperor keeps and employs; but their houſes are low and ill contrived. According to F. Attiret, a French Jeſuit, who had acceſs to ſee this palace, it is more than three miles in circumference; the front ſhining with gold, varniſh, and paint, while the inſide is decorated with every coſtly ornament the world can afford. The gardens are of vaſt extent, and have artificial mounts in height from 20 to 60 feet, forming a number of ſmall vallies plentifully watered by canals, forming lakes in various places by their union and extenſion in breadth. The banks of theſe are decorated with elegant buildings, no two of which are ſaid to have any reſemblance to each other; and magnificent barges are always to be ſeen ſailing upon the water. In every valley there is a pleaſure houſe, ſufficient to lodge one of our firſt rate nobility with all his retinue. The pleaſure houſes are frequently built of cedar, brought at a vaſt expence more than 500 leagues diſtance; and there are upwards of 200 of theſe buildings within the great incloſure of the palace and gardens. In one lake, near half a league in diameter, there is a rocky iſland with a palace built upon it, containing upwards of 100 apartments, and being otherwiſe a moſt elegant and magnificent ſtructure. The artificial mounts are covered with trees producing generally beautiful aromatic flowers, and on the canals are pieces of rock diſpoſed in ſuch a manner, as to make a moſt happy imitation of the wildneſs of nature. The city of Peking is ſaid to contain two millions of inhabitants.

The greateſt ſea-port in China, and that moſt frequented by Europeans is Canton; the wall of which is about five miles in circumference, with fine walks around it; and, from the tops of the adjacent hills, there are many noble proſpects of the neighbouring country. The entrance to the city is by ſeveral gates of iron, within each of which there is a guard-houſe. The ſtreets are narrow, but ſtraight, and paved with flag ſtones; and there are great numbers of triumphal arches and temples, as well as other magnificent buildings. The crowd is ſo great that it is difficult to walk on the ſtreets, though it is very rare to ſee a woman of any faſhion, unleſs juſt when ſhe is coming out of her chair. Proviſions of all kinds are very cheap, and there are great numbers of markets for fiſh, vegetables, poultry, and butcher meat. About the ſkirts of the town are many private walks, where the better ſort of people have their houſes, but the Europeans frequent only the trading part of the city, where the merchants have their ſhops and ware-houſes. All the Chineſe are ſo jealous of having their houſes looked into, that they have no windows to the ſtreet, excepting in ſhops and places of public buſineſs, neither do the windows of any Chineſe look towards thoſe of his neighbour. There are frequently 5000 trading veſſels lying before this city, and it is ſuppoſed to contain 1,200,000 inhabitants. The country in the neighbourhood of Canton affords a moſt beautiful variety of hills and vallies, all of them covered with a delightful verdure, and interſperſed with a vaſt variety of ſmall towns and villages, towers, ſeats of the nobility, temples, &c. and watered with lakes, canals, and branches of

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the river Ta, with innumerable ſmall veſſels conſtantly ſailing upon them. At Canton, and indeed throughout all China, there are vaſt numbers of people who lodge entirely on the water, and never, throughout their whole lives, ſet on foot land. The city of Nankin is reckoned to be ſtill more populous than that of Pekin.

Trade and Manufactures. There is no country in the world where internal commerce is carried on to ſuch an extent as in China, but that to foreign parts is much more limited. The reaſon of this is, that the Chineſe are but very indifferent navigators, and what is worſe, ſeem determined never to improve. Hence they make but few foreign voyages, and theſe not to diſtant countries; but their ports are open to European nations, with whom they deal only for ready money; for ſuch is the pride of the nation, that they imagine no manufactures equal to their own, and conſequently will take none in exchange for their goods; though this may perhaps ariſe from a principle of avarice as much as from that juſt mentioned.

The principal manufactures in China are thoſe of ſilk and porcelain. Their ſilks are generally plain and flowered gauzes, though ſome of a more durable kind of ſtuff are prepared. It is in China that the method of rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered, and conſequently it is to be reckoned the country whence this commodity originally came. The manufacture of cotton is likewiſe brought to a conſiderable perfection in China. The method of making porcelain was for a long time a ſecret to Europeans, but by means of the miſſionaries, the materials of which it is made were diſcovered, and the induſtry of naturaliſts ſoon found them out in many parts of Europe. Hence manufactures of porcelain have been erected in the European countries, ſeveral of which, particularly thoſe of Saxony, far exceed the Chineſe. The Chineſe ink is well known in this country, as being much uſed in drawing; but their paper, which is made of the bark of the bamboo and other trees, as well as of cotton, is greatly inferior to ours, and cannot bear to be written or printed but upon one ſide. In writing they make uſe of a pencil, and their method of printing has already been taken notice of.

Conſtitution and Government. The government of China in its original ſtate was patriarchal in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word, and ſtill contiues to be ſo in a great meaſure, notwithſtanding ſome deviations which have been made by the Tartar princes. The foundation of the whole is the filial obedience due by children to their father; the emperor is conſidered as the father of the whole empire, and every governor a father of the province over which he preſides. To render this mode of government the more effectual, the princes and mandarins were repreſented as partaking of the divine nature, they ſpoke a particular language, and were very ſeldom ſeen by the common people. But as in this conſtitution very little regard was paid to the military eſtabliſhment, no precautions were taken to provide for the permanent ſecurity of government. A weak or wicked adminiſtration eaſily drove the people into rebellion. They juſtified themſelves by ſaying, that the ſovereign had ceaſed to become their father, and revolutions frequently took place. Of this weakneſs the Tartars took advantage, and watching a proper opportunity, invaded and conquered the whole empire. The emperor is ſtyled, "Holy Son of Heaven, Great Father of his people, Sole Governor of the earth, &c. His authority is the moſt abſolute we can conceive, notwithſtanding which

which the mandarins have a right to remonſtrate to him upon the errors of his government, and virtuous princes commonly take their admonitions in good part. There is no country in the world where the adminiſtration of juſtice is ſo well provided for as in China; though it can by no means be ſaid that the magiſtrates appointed for that purpoſe are at all better inclined to do their duty than in other places. There are in this empire a vaſt number of ſumptuary laws, by which the dreſs and other expences of the people are regulated.

Religion. This, notwithſtanding all that has been ſaid in favour of it by ſome authors, appears to be the moſt abominable ſuperſtition and idolatry. We are told, that formerly the Chineſe philoſophers had juſt notions of the deity, and that Confucius introduced an excellent ſyſtem of morals; but it is certain, that neither the ſyſtem of the ancient philoſophers, nor of Confucius, now continue to be the religion of the bulk of the nation. During the laſt century, the Jeſuit miſſionaries made, or pretended to make a great number of converts to Chriſtianity; but, attempting to get the civil power of the empire into their own hands, they were all baniſhed, the churches they had built were levelled with the ground, and the exerciſe of the Chriſtian religion prohibited.

Revenues. As there is no great abundance of money in China, the revenues of the emperor are paid in rice and other commodities, which may be eaſily collected. They are impoſed according to the circumſtances of each perſon, of which an account is annually taken, and a record kept by officers appointed for that purpoſe.

Military Strength. The land forces of China are ſaid to conſiſt of no fewer than five millions; but in this vaſt multitude we muſt include all thoſe who are employed in collecting the revenue, preſerving the canals, the roads, and the peace of the empire. The emperor's guards amount to 30,000. The empire is become much more formidable ſince the laſt conqueſt by the Tartars; for, by obliging the Chineſe to wear the dreſs and arms of the Tartars, and the latter to conform to the manners and policy of the Chineſe, the monarch moſt effectually united the two nations; and, as there is now nothing to fear from the ſide of Tartary, the empire of China may be ſaid to be in a ſtate of abſolute ſecurity. The only danger that can poſſibly enſue is from the total diſuſe of arms, conſequent upon a long interval of peace. From a Chineſe treatiſe on the art of war, however, which was tranſlated into French in the year 1772, we learn, that they are by no means ignorant of the theory of that deſtructive art; though even in this there is an extreme caution, which, if practiſed in its full extent, would certainly be ſometimes productive of bad conſequences. In this treatiſe it is laid down as a maxim never to fight with enemies better armed or more numerous than themſelves.

Hiſtory. The Chineſe pretend to an antiquity beyond all the bounds, not only of credibility, but even of any reaſonable imagination. The moſt extravagant accounts have been trumped up, of which no other confutation is neceſſary, than barely to mention the enormous differences among themſelves, ſome making their nation only 276,000 years old, others upwards of 96 millions. The authentic, or the leaſt fabulous part of the Chineſe hiſtory, commences with the reign of the emperor Yao, who is ſuppoſed to have lived about 2000 years before the Chriſtian Æra. An ample record of all the tranſactions of the empire is ſaid to have been kept from the time of its foundation, and to have made up a vaſt number

number of volumes; but it is certain, that no part of the ancient hiſtory of this empire can be depended upon, for, by ſome misfortune unknown to us, the Chineſe hiſtorians fell under the diſpleaſure of their emperors, and many of them were exiled, and their writings deſtroyed. The moſt probable cauſe of this was, their having treated with too great freedom the characters of the ſovereigns themſelves, which at laſt provoked the emperor Chiang-ti, who lived about 213 years before Chriſt, to order a general deſtruction of all the hiſtories throughout the kingdom, as well as all accounts of the ancient laws and ſyſtem of government. This order was executed with the greateſt punctuality; and 400 of the Literati, who choſe rather to ſuffer death than abandon their books, were burnt along with them. Hence, the hiſtory of China muſt neceſſarily be very imperfect; for, though ſome works undoubtedly eſcaped the general deſtruction, we can only ſuppoſe, that from them a kind of mutilated fragments of hiſtory could be collected, rather than any connected chain. From that time, however, or at leaſt from a ſhort period after the death of that tyrant, the hiſtorical records were as uſual preſerved, and, before the beginning of the preſent century, they amounted to the immenſe bulk of 668 volumes. An abridgement of theſe was made in the year 1703, and even this abridgement conſiſted of 100 volumes. A copy of all the 668 is in the French king's library, and from theſe immenſe materials the Abbe Groſier propoſed to publiſh an hiſtory of China in 12 volumes quarto. Some of theſe have been printed; but our limits will by no means allow us to enter upon the diſcuſſion of ſuch an extenſive ſubject, which at any rate muſt be incomplete. China was invaded by the Mogul Tartars under their celebrated and deſtructive monarch Jenghiz Khan; but, though this conqueror overcame them in many battles, he was by no means able to reduce the whole empire. This was accompliſhed indeed by his ſucceſſors, but they, ſoon degenerating, were totally expelled, and the empire continued to be governed by its native ſovereigns till the year 1644, when the Manchew Tartars, taking advantage of the diviſions which reigned at that time, conquered it entirely, and their prince became ſovereign of China. It was his ſucceſſor who gave the encouragement to the Jeſuits of which we have already ſpoken. In 1661 the iſland of Formoſa was reduced, by driving out the Dutch, who had taken it from the Portugueſe. In 1771 an immenſe multitude of Tartars, no fewer, it is ſaid, than 50,000 families left a ſettlement they had under the Ruſſians near the Caſpian Sea, to put themſelves under the protection of the emperor of China, who gave them a gracious reception, alloting them lands ſufficient both for agriculture and paſturage. A ſecond emigration, to the number of 30,000 families, took place the following year, and theſe events, which ſeem to evidence that the Chineſe government is preferable to the Ruſſian, appeared ſo remarkable to the Chineſe monarch, that he cauſed their hiſtory to be engraved upon ſtone, in four different languages.

INDIA.

Situation, Boundaries, and Diviſion. THIS vaſt extent of country, comprehending all that tract betwixt the empires of Perſia and China, is bounded on the north by Uſbec Tartary and Thibet; on the ſouth by the ocean; on the weſt by Perſia and that part of the ocean called the *Indian Sea;* and on the eaſt by China and the Chineſe Sea. Its ſituation, with regard to longitude and latitude, is between 66 and 109 degrees of eaſt longitude, and one and 40 of north latitude. The general diviſion of this tract is into three parts, 1. The Peninſula beyond the Ganges, commonly called the Farther Peninſula. 2. The Mogul's empire, or Main-Land. 3. The Peninſula within the Ganges, or on the weſtern ſide of it. All theſe countries, however, though ſo widely extended and diſtant from one another, have many particulars in common to all, ſome of which we ſhall now give an account of before entering into a particular deſcription of the diviſions juſt mentioned.

Inhabitants, Religion, Government, &c. The original inhabitants of this country are named *Gentoos*, or more properly *Hindoos*, from which laſt appellation that of the country, viz. *Hindooſtan*, or *Indoſtan*, is derived. They pretend to vaſt antiquity, and that their nation was originally governed by one Brumma, who, they pretend, was inferior only to God himſelf. From this Brumma, the name of *Bramins*, by which the Gentoo prieſts are diſtinguiſhed, probably took its origin. They ſay that he left them a book, called *Vidam*, containing every thing neceſſary to be known both with reſpect to religion and politics; and, though this book is unfortunately loſt, they are ſtill in poſſeſſion of a commentary upon it, called the *Shaſtah*, which is ſuppoſed to be of equal validity with the text. This book is written in a language called the *Shanſcrita*, now known only to the Bramins, who have thus dextrouſly monopolized the ſource of religious knowledge to themſelves. It is by no means neceſſary to enter into any particular account of the abſurdities retailed, out of that book it is to be ſuppoſed, to the people, which they implicitly put confidence in. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the *metempſychoſis*, or tranſmigration of the ſouls of men into the bodies of other animals, is one of their favourite points, and it is very reaſonably ſuppoſed that the Greek philoſopher Pythagoras borrowed this doctrine from the Indians. This abominable and abſurd doctrine, by ſome, even of our own countrymen, called *ſublime*, is accompanied with the moſt ſtupid and diſguſting tenets concerning the deity and his worſhip, from any detail of which we hope the reader will very readily excuſe us.

The inhabitants of Hindooſtan have been from time immemorial divided into four great tribes, more generally named *Caſts*. 1. The *Bramins*, who, as has been already ſaid, are the only miniſters of religion; and, like the Levites among the Jews, ſeparated from the reſt of the people for that purpoſe. 2. The *Sittri*, who according to their original inſtitution ought to be all ſoldiers. 3. The *Beiſe*, principally of a mercantile profeſſion. 4. The *Sudder*, all of them ſervants, or in a ſervile ſtation.

The

EAST INDIES, from the best AUTHORITIES.

British Statute Miles
50 100 200 300 500 800
Marine Leagues
50 100 150 200 250

TARTARY
TIBET
CHINA
PERSIA
MOGULS EMPIRE
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
PHILIPPINE ISLES
BENGAL
BAY OF
ARABIAN SEA
PEGU
SIAM
CAMBODIA
CHAMPA
COCHIN CHINA
TONQUIN
GULF OF TONQUIN
BORNEO
CELEBES
NEW GUINEA
SPICE ISLES
ISLES OF SUNDA
MALACCA
SUMATRA
JAVA
CEYLON I.
MALDIVES
LACKA DIVES
Straits of Sunda
Part of New Holland
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Longitude East from London

Kandahor Cabul Lahor Delhi Agra Surat Bombay Goa Madras Pondicherry Golconda Visapour Ava Pegu Siam Ligor Malacca Achen Canton Fuchew Formosa Hainan I. Pracel Manilla Mindanao Borneo Java Sumatra Celebes Timor Aroo I. Banda I. Amboyna Moa Timor land Lekeyo I. Taypin I. Patchon Bashi Is. Babuyan Is. Polo Catanduanes Samar Leyta Palao or Pelew Is. St Andrews I. Sooloo I. Gilolo I. Waigeu I. Mindoro Lucconia

T. Condor Sculpt

The Bramins are, by their inſtitutions, ſtrictly prohibited from performing any menial ſervices, though not excluded from the offices of government, agriculture, or commerce. The Sittri alſo frequently purſue the ordinary occupations of life; though, as has already been obſerved, they ought all to follow that of arms. The fourth caſt conſiſts of the loweſt of the people, who are accounted unworthy of any other than a ſervile ſtate, and have it not in their power to better their condition by any means whatever. Beſides theſe four, there is a kind of fifth, though theſe can ſcarce be ſaid to belong to the body of the people, conſiſting of ſuch as have been excommunicated, or expelled from the other caſts. They are called *Harri*, and are held in utter contempt and deteſtation, being employed only in the very meaneſt offices. This ſituation is reckoned ſo dreadful, that an Hindoo will rather ſubmit to death, than deviate from any article of his faith by which he might be ſubjected to ſuch puniſhment.

This diviſion into caſts, with the invincible obſtinacy by which the difference between them is maintained, proves the ſource of unheard of ſlavery among the people, and until it can be removed, muſt undoubtedly prove an inſuperable obſtacle to their civilization. The four great tribes, or caſts, are ſubdivided into many more; ſome ſay to the number of 84, or even more; among whom there is a regular gradation from the Bramins to the very loweſt. Thoſe of the lower caſts dare not adopt the cuſtoms of any of the ſuperior ones. The inferior receives with reſpect the victuals prepared by a ſuperior; but the latter will not partake of a meal prepared by an inferior. In like manner, the different caſts are prevented from intermarrying with each other, and their abſurd belief of a metempſychoſis prevents them not only from uſing animal food, but even from deſtroying the moſt poiſonous or miſchievous animals. Many of them, however, are leſs ſcrupulous, and will eat fiſh or fleſh, though very ſparingly of either. Their uſual food is rice, and other vegetables, exceſſively ſeaſoned with ſpices. Turmeric alſo is an ingredient in their diſhes; but they conſider milk as the pureſt food in the world, as coming from the cow whom they adore almoſt as a divinity. Mr Bryant, who takes notice of this extraordinary veneration for the cow, in his mythology, derives it from the veneration originally paid to the ark of Noah, of which he looks upon the cow to have been a ſymbol. With all their abſurdities, however, the manners of the Hindoos are very gentle and peaceable; they place their happineſs where it certainly ought to lie, viz. in the comforts of a domeſtic life; and they conſider marriage as an indiſpenſible duty of every one who does not entirely ſeparate himſelf from the world upon a religious account. Though their religion allows them to take ſeveral wives, they ſeldom make uſe of that privilege; and it is remarked, that their wives behave with a decency, fidelity, and affection which might do honour to the moſt civilized nations. A moſt barbarous cuſtom, however, prevails among them, viz. that of women burning themſelves in honour of their deceaſed huſbands; but this is now much leſs frequent than formerly. They have few amuſements, excepting that of viſiting their temples, religious ſhews, and going through the ridiculous ceremonies preſcribed by the Bramins. By their religion alſo they are prohibited from going beyond the limits of their own country; and indeed they certainly have not any real reaſon to do ſo, as it produces every thing they have occaſion for.

It may ſeem ſtrange, that thoſe who pretend to ſcruples of conſcience

in killing even a noxious animal, ſhould have among them any *ſoldiers*, whoſe buſineſs it is to kill and deſtroy mankind. Such, however, there are in Hindooſtan as well as other countries. They are called *Rajahpoots*, and are ready to hire themſelves into the ſervice of any prince who will employ them. They have alſo the reputation of being valiant; but, when in competition with European troops, ſcarce any advantage whatever in point of numbers can make up their deficiency.

The pagodas, or temples, of the Gentoos have nothing to recommend them but their magnitude, the architecture being entirely deſtitute of beauty. They are built under the direction of the Bramins, who thus manifeſt their want of ſkill in architecture: they are, however, ſomewhat better verſed in ſome other ſciences In aſtronomy, particularly, they have made conſiderable progreſs; being able to obſerve the motions of the celeſtial bodies, and even to calculate eclipſes of the ſun and moon. The obſervatory, at Benaves, of which an account is given in the philoſophical tranſactions, is a moſt ſtupendous work, and muſt be a monument of the ſkill of thoſe who built it to the lateſt poſterity. This aſtronomical ſkill of theirs, however, has unluckily degenerated into the abſurd ſcience of aſtrology, and this is followed by ſuch ſuperſtitions, that almoſt half the year is loſt by unlucky days, on which no buſineſs of conſequence muſt be attempted. The Gentoos are, however, very induſtrious, and are extremely paſſive under their Mahometan governors, who moſt grievouſly oppreſs them. They are ſaid indeed to be leſs under the influence of almoſt every paſſion than the reſt of mankind; and for this a very natural reaſon may be aſſigned, viz. the extreme ſcantineſs of their food, and the little nouriſhment it affords. The principal part of it is rice, which beſides having few nutritive particles, is ſaid to be particularly bad for the eye-ſight. Another reaſon of the debility in both ſexes is their early marriages; the men being uſually married before 14, and the women before 11. Thus from the concurrence of ſo many debilitating cauſes, the men are on the decline at 30, and the women at 18; and at 25 the latter have all the marks of old age. Thus they are altogether incapable of that vigorous exertion which is to be met with in Europeans; their greateſt pleaſure conſiſts in mere indolence and inactivity; and they think the joys of heaven conſiſt in being *annihilated!* It is a common ſaying among them, that "it is better to ſit than to walk, to lie down than to ſit, to ſleep than to be awake, and that death is the beſt of all."

The two great diviſions of India, called the Main-land, and the Peninſula within the Ganges, are by the lateſt geographers claſſed under the general title of Indoſtan. The inhabitants are by Mr Orme calculated at about 110 millions, of whom 100 millions are Gentoos, and the reſt Mahometans, called the *Moors of India*. The whole was formerly ſubject to one monarch, commonly called the *Great Mogul*, whoſe authority was moſt deſpotic; but now his power is reduced to a mere ſhadow, and his dominions are ſhared among the Rajahs, or petty princes, who recogniſe his authority no farther than ſerves their own purpoſes. The Engliſh Eaſt India Company have alſo acquired an immenſe territory in that part of the world, and indeed in many reſpects the Britiſh power may be conſidered as the greateſt in all India. The Mahometans of India are of ſeveral different nations, viz. Turks, Arabs, and Perſians; and they began to invade the country not long after the death of Mahomet, as we have already obſerved in the hiſtory of Arabia. The colonies ſettled

by

by them in these early times still continue, and are called *Pytans*, Delhi being the capital of all their settlements. Their government subsisted till the time of Tamerlane, by whom it was entirely subverted, the city of Delhi taken, and the inhabitants miserably slaughtered. As Tamerlane and the rest of the Mogul princes were now zealous Mahometans, they afforded protection to all of that religion, and distinguished them by particular marks of their favour. By them the division of the empire into provinces, such as now exists, was introduced. Over each of these provinces, which were very extensive, they appointed governors, called *Soubahs*; and below these were an inferior kind of governors, styled *Nabobs*.

It may naturally be supposed, that a vast empire governed in this manner, must soon fall to pieces. The soubahs became independent of the sovereign, upon paying him an annual tribute; and the nabobs, upon the same conditions, became independent of the soubahs. The government was indeed strengthened by the great resort of Persians and Tartars to this empire; but in a few generations they degenerated from the valour and ferocity on which they valued themselves, so much, that now they are to the full as effeminate and cowardly as the Indians themselves. At present the Mahrattas are the most renowned for their valour of any who inhabit the empire of Hindoostan. They inhabit the mountainous country between Hindostan and Persia, and are a kind of mercenary soldiers, hiring themselves out to any prince who chooses to employ them. When they choose to act for themselves, however, they are very formidable; and though they are not by any means able to cope with European troops, yet their numbers always render them very formidable. They profess the Gentoo religion, but generally pay no great respect to their principles. As for the Mahometans, or Moors, they are said to be people of the most abandoned characters in the world, absolutely devoid of faith, honour, or honesty. They have an appearance of hospitality indeed, and this is their only virtue; but the worst is, that the hospitality they pretend is only a mere deceit, so that they are capable of stabbing a man to the heart at the very time they are pretending the greatest respect and kindness for him. The Mahometan laws prevail only in the great cities, and the country adjacent to them; the lands are hereditary, even to the possessions of subtenants; the only requisite being that the lord should pay his taxes, and the tenant his rent. The dignity of emperor, in like manner, is hereditary, and the sovereign is heir to his officers. The demesne lands belonging to the crown are those of certain rajahs, which fell into the hands of Tamerlane. Some of them have got the name of *Jaghire* lands, and are given to great lords, called *Omrahs*, to revert to the emperor upon their death; but the subtenants even of these lands enjoy their possessions by an indefeasible right.

The greatest stroke which this empire received was from the invasion of Khouli Khan, who usurped the throne of Persia, and of whose invasion an account shall be given in the history of that empire. It was at this time that the soubahs and nabobs became quite independent of the sovereign, and absolute masters of the provinces they governed. From this time also we may date that monstrous oppression to which the people of Hindoostan are obliged to submit, and which, we are sorry to say, does not appear to have been in any degree alleviated by our countrymen. These merciless governors, regarding nothing but their own ag-

grandiſement, invented new taxes by which the people were reduced to abſolute beggary, and were not unfrequently reduced to want; ſo that from this cauſe alone we may deduce many of the terrible famines with which Hindooſtan has been afflicted. The people, inſipid, indolent, and loſt almoſt to every ſenſation except that of avarice, concern themſelves very little about the affairs of government. If they can acquire money, they hide it with the utmoſt care, and very often bury it in the ground, ſo that after their death it is never diſcovered. They will even become the miniſters of the cruelty of their governors upon one another, and in no country in the world are murders and aſſaſſinations ſo common as in India.

INDIAN PENINSULA beyond the GANGES.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries. THIS vaſt country, lying between one and 32 degrees of north latitude, and between 92-20 and 109 eaſt longitude, is not leſs than 2000 miles in length, and 1000 in breadth. On the north it is bounded by Thibet and China; on the ſouth by the great Southern Ocean, and Straits of Malacca; on the weſt by Bengal, and the Peninſula within the Ganges; and on the eaſt by part of China and the Chineſe Sea.

Grand diviſi.	Subdiviſi.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north-weſt.	Acham	Chamdara	180,010
	Ava	Ava	
	Aracan	Aracan	
On the ſouth weſt.	Pegu	Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 16 00.	50,020
	Martaban	Martaban	
	Siam	Siam, E. lon. 100-00. N. lat. 13-50.	170,030
	Malacca	Malacca, E. lon. 102. N. lat. 2-12.	48,050
On the north eaſt.	Tonkin	Cachao, or Keaſay, E. lon. 106. N lat. 16-00.	112,060
	Laos	Lanchang	59,410
On the ſouth eaſt.	C. China	Thoanoa	61,910
	Cambodia	Cambodia	60,220
	Chiampa	Padram	

Name. The river Indus, which was well known to the ancient Perſians, gave the name of India to the whole tract of country lying beyond it; but whence this river had its name we are not certainly informed. The ancients had but a very imperfect knowledge of the Peninſula we ſpeak

ſpeak of, though they knew that there was ſuch a river as the Ganges, and called the people who inhabited its banks the *Gangoridæ*. The Peninſula of Malacca was by them called the *Cherſoneſus Aurea*, and is by many ſuppoſed to have been the *Ophir* mentioned in ſcripture. The knowledge of the moderns is alſo very limited concerning the internal parts of this country, though they are pretty well acquainted with the ſea coaſts. The country between Bengal and China is now called the province of *Mackley*.

Climate. In a country ſo extenſive, it is not to be ſuppoſed but that there muſt be a great diverſity in the degrees of heat and cold, as well as in the other properties of the atmoſphere. In the northern parts, however, the air is generally dry, though hot; but in the ſouthern diſtricts it is exceſſively moiſt, and ſo much ſubject to inundations, that the people are obliged to build their houſes upon pillars. Hurricanes, earthquakes, and violent thunder and lightning are alſo very frequent; and the ſeaſons are only diſtinguiſhed by being wet or dry.

Mountains. A great ridge of mountains divides this country almoſt through its whole length, but they are ſo little known to Europeans, that no deſcription of them can be given. The lands near the ſea are flat, and annually overflowed during the rainy ſeaſon.

Rivers. Theſe are very numerous and large, capable of vying with the moſt celebrated rivers in any part of the world, America perhaps only excepted. The principal are the Senpoo, or Burrampooter, the Ava, or great river *Nou-kian*, the Menan, Domea, and Mecon. Of theſe only the Burrampooter has been particularly deſcribed, and of this we ſhall take notice when ſpeaking of the Ganges.

Promontories, Straits, and Bays. The principal promontories in this extenſive country are thoſe of Siam, Banſac, and Roamana; the ſtreights in the ſea adjacent are thoſe of Malacca and Sincapora; and the bays are thoſe of Cochin-china, Siam, and Bengal.

Soil and Produce. The ſoil of this country is in general very fruitful, producing all the delicious fruits common to the warm countries. Mines of gold, ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones, are met with in this country in great abundance. Elephants and all kinds of wild beaſts common in other tropical countries are alſo met with here, and ſilk is produced in great abundance. Tonk-ing is ſaid to be the moſt healthy country of the whole, but is not very fertile in corn. The water, in ſome places, is ſaid to be of a bad quality, and to occaſion ſwellings in the throat.

Inhabitants, Manners, &c. The people in the ſouthern parts of this extenſive country are a moſt ſavage and barbarous race, going almoſt entirely naked, excepting that they wear large bracelets and ear-rings of gold and ſilver. In one of the countries named Azorn, dog's fleſh is preferred to every other food. Indeed, notwithſtanding the averſion which we have to this kind of food, there ſeems to be nothing diſagreeable or unwholeſome in it. The fleſh of dogs is commonly eaten in the South Sea iſlands. Mr Forſter, who ſailed round the world with captain Cook, informs us, that he eat of it, and that it exactly reſembled mutton in taſte; and when captain Cook himſelf was dangerouſly ill, he was recovered by eating dog's fleſh, there being no other freſh proviſions to be had. In this kingdom the ſovereign is proprietor of all the gold and ſilver mines, ſo that the people are totally exempted from taxes. The kingdom of Tonk-ing is pretty much frequented by Europeans, who repreſent

preſent the Tonk-ingneſe as excellent mechanics, as well as fair dealers. They are very much oppreſſed by their ſovereign and great men; the former engroſſing all the trade to himſelf, and retailing the commodities of the country by his factors to the European nations. In this country, as well as in Cochin-china, the dreſs of the men differs very little from that of the women. The dreſs reſembles that of the Perſians. The people of quality are fond of being dreſſed in red or green Engliſh cloth; but thoſe of inferior quality wear dark coloured cotton. The inhabitants of the ſouthern peninſula are called Malayans, and their language is ſpoken over great part of the eaſt. They are a vile, cruel, and treacherous race, and moſt horridly naſty, eating ſtinking fiſh, ſerpents, rats, mice, &c. They take great care of their hair, however, and bind it up in a very nice manner. In a kingdom called *Aracan*, the men have a ſtrange and unnatural cuſtom of hiring foreigners to conſumate their nuptials, and value the enjoyment of their women moſt when pregnant. They have a very abſurd method of treating their ſick, and when they judge them to be incurable, expoſe them on the bank of ſome river, that they may be either drowned or devoured by wild beaſts. The diverſions of theſe people are fiſhing and hunting, acting comedies and celebrating feſtivals, which they frequently do all night. They are ſaid to have known gun-powder long before any ſuch thing was made uſe of in Europe; and the invention is commonly aſcribed to the inhabitants of Azem. The religion of all of them is abſurd idolatry.

Language. The Perſian and Malayan languages are the two moſt commonly ſpoken throughout this peninſula.

Learning and Learned Men. Of old the Brachmans of India were highly celebrated for their learning and philoſophy; and, however abſurd the doctrines and behaviour of the preſent Bramins may be, they are the only inſtructors which remain to the Indians at this day. Of theſe we have already ſpoken, and taken notice of their ſkill in aſtronomy, which indeed ſeems to be the whole extent of their knowledge. In medicine they are very ignorant, and as diſſections are forbidden by their laws, we can have no great opinion of their ſkill in anatomy or ſurgery. Their muſic is very barbarous; their poetry turgid and full of ridiculous and high-flown expreſſions; and their hiſtorical writings exceſſively diffuſe and tedious.

Commerce and Manufactures. The commerce of India has been an object of deſire to all the weſtern part of the world, from the earlieſt ages. It is even ſuppoſed that Solomon drew from thence a part of his immenſe wealth; and it is certain, that from thence the Greeks and Romans obtained their greateſt luxuries. The greateſt part of it is now in the hands of the Britiſh and Dutch, though the Danes and Swedes have a ſmall part. The French have withdrawn their troops and given up their ſettlements in this part of the world.

The manufactures in many parts of India are extremely curious, and their workmen much ſurpaſs thoſe of Europe, both in their induſtry and ſkill. They particularly excell in the articles of weaving, ſewing, embroidering, &c. in which it is ſaid they employ their feet as much as their hands. They are by no means well ſkilled in drawing, nevertheleſs their paintings are amazingly beautiful, by reaſon of the great brightneſs of the colours. Their linen and filligree work, in gold and ſilver, are fine beyond any thing we can imagine.

Conſtitution and Government, Cities and Curioſities. As this vaſt peninſula

ninſula contains many different kingdoms, ſome of which are very much unknown to the Europeans, we can only take notice of ſome of the principal of them; and of theſe we ſhall alſo give a ſomewhat more particular deſcription.

1. The kingdom of *Siam* is very extenſive, and has been deſcribed in very magnificent terms by the miſſionaries who formerly viſited it. The monarch is exceſſively deſpotic, and his deſpotiſm pervades the whole nation from the higheſt to the loweſt; ſo that all ſervants muſt kneel before their maſters, and the great men fall proſtrate before the king. The capital of this country is likewiſe called Siam, and is ſaid to be a large place, but very thinly inhabited. The palace is about a mile and an half in circumference. The city of Bankok, about 50 miles to the ſouth of the capital, is the only fortified place in theſe parts, having good walls, and batteries of braſs cannon. There is another, named Ligor, where the Dutch have a factory. This country abounds with gold mines, inſomuch, that the king's palace is ſaid to be overlaid with it, and the images in the temples to be made of maſſy gold. But there is juſt reaſon to queſtion the truth of theſe accounts, as no ſuch abundance of gold appears in the dreſs or ornaments of the people. They do indeed ornament themſelves with that precious metal, but they are extremely thin; and the common ornaments of wood uſed in their houſes are only covered over with lacquer. The inhabitants are polite, ingenious, and civil, approaching nearer to the character of the Chineſe than any other nation in Aſia; but the country is by no means well peopled, for which we are not able to aſſign any reaſon. Siam is ſeparated from the kingdoms of Cambòia and Laos by a ridge of high mountains, which almoſt ſurround it. On the weſt it has Pegu; and on the north Ava or Jangoma; from which it is ſeparated by the mountains juſt mentioned. On the ſouth it is bounded by the river Siam and the peninſula of Malacca; ſome part of which is ſubject to its juriſdiction.

2. *Malacca.* The Dutch, who are alſo in poſſeſſion of the capital called alſo *Malacca*, are ſaid to be maſters of the whole country; and the extreme degeneracy of the Malayans already mentioned is ſaid to be owing to their tyranny. The country produces fine tin, pepper, gums, ivory, and canes. It is admirably ſituated for trade with India, and on the arrival of the Portugueſe, Malacca was the richeſt city in the eaſt, next to Goa and Ormus, being the centre of all the commerce to China, Japan, the Molucca and Sunda iſlands. Formerly the inhabitants are ſaid to have meaſured their riches by bars of gold; ſo that it is no wonder if the ancients beſtowed on this country the title of *Golden Cherſoneſus*. A ſmuggling trade is carried on with this country from the Britiſh ſettlements on the Coromandel coaſt, which is connived at by the Dutch governors, though contrary to the expreſs orders of the States.

3. *Cambodia*, or *Camboja*, is under the ſame deſpotic kind of government with the reſt of the countries in this part of the world. It is but little known to the Europeans, though by geographical writers its length is determined to be ſomewhat more than 500 miles, and its breadth about 400. It is entirely deſert, excepting on the banks of a great river called alſo *Cambodia*, which runs through the middle of it. All the other parts are ſo filled with ſerpents, wild beaſts, and ſwarms of poiſonous gnats and other inſects, and the climate is beſides ſo exceſſively unhealthy, that it cannot be inhabited. The products of it are much the ſame with thoſe of the countries already deſcribed. Here the *betel leaf*, the

the chewing of which is reckoned ſuch a luxury all over the eaſt, is found in the greateſt plenty.

4. *Cochin-china* is ſaid to be under the dominion of an immenſely rich monarch; though he himſelf is ſaid to be tributary to the emperor of China. Between this and the former kingdom lies a ſmall territory, named *Chiampa*, whoſe inhabitants, by reaſon of their intercourſe with the Chineſe and other nations, are ſaid to be more civilized than their neighbours. This kingdom, as well as Laos, and even Cambodia, are ſaid to be tributary to Cochin-china. This laſt extends about 500 miles in length, from ſouth to north; but its breadth is much leſs. The people are much inclined to commerce, and reſemble the Chineſe in their manners.

5. *Tonk-ing* is under a very particular kind of government, which took place in conſequence of a revolt from the Chineſe, which was likewiſe attended with a civil war. In this the lawful monarch not being able to get the better of his rival, came to a compromiſe with him, by which it was agreed, that the latter ſhould have all the prerogatives of the real king, under the title of *Chouah*; while the other being allowed to retain the title of *Bua*, or king, ſhould have ſome trifling civil prerogatives within the palace; and from this he muſt not ſtir without permiſſion granted by the chouah. The capital of the country is named Cachao, and is the place of reſidence of both the chouah and bua. The latter has a palace of immenſe magnitude, with a fine arſenal. On the north ſide of the city the Britiſh merchants have a fine houſe, with warehouſes and other conveniencies for trade. The Tonk-ingneſe have a ſtrange notion, that the poſſeſſion of rubies and other precious ſtones of vaſt magnitude, as well as white or partly coloured elephants, are productive of titles to nobility and even royalty, whence bloody wars have ſometimes taken place about them. The king of Tonk-ing is tributary to China.

6. The king of *Azem* is nominally ſubject to the Great Mogul, but pays him very little reſpect, and little or no tribute. His capital city is named *Kirgamis*, or *Ghergong*.

7. *Tipra* lies to the northward of Aracan, to which it was formerly ſubject. The inhabitants trade with the Chineſe in ſilk and gold, receiving ſilver in return.

8. *Aracan* is governed by a king, under whom there is twelve ſubordinate princes. The ſovereign has a fine palace, and we are told, that in his capital are ſeven idols of gold, hollow within indeed, but two inches thick. They are about the height of an ordinary man, and covered with diamonds and other precious ſtones.

9. *Pegu* is about 350 miles long, and nearly as broad; the principal city is Macao. This country was conquered by the king of Ava in 1754.

10. *Ava* is governed by a king, to whom his ſubjects pay almoſt divine honours. The people carry on a trade in muſk and jewels, particularly rubies and ſapphires. In other reſpects they reſemble the inhabitants of Pegu. Throughout this, and many other kingdoms in the peninſula within the Ganges, the religion of the Lima of Thibet prevails, which ſhall be afterwards deſcribed.

11. *Laos*, or *Lahos*, is governed by a moſt deſpotic prince, whoſe religion is that of the Lima above mentioned. The kingdom is extremely populous, but is ſubject to that of Ava. Formerly it included the kingdom of Jangoma, or Jangomay, but is now ſeparated from it. It is di-

Longitude East
70°
75°
80°
85°
90°
30°
25°
20°
Candahar
ABDALLE
PERSIA
Part of SEINDI
Cashmeer
Attock
Lahore
SEIKS
Moultan
Adjodin
Batnir
Jesselmere
Indus R
Jeypoor
Agimere
Tatta
Cutch
G. of SEINDI
Puddar R
Amedabad
Cambay
Patan
Radimpour
Indore
Pawanpur
Barwach
Nerbudda R
Nadderbar
Jaffierabad
Hurdwar
DELHI
AGRA
Mathura
Mindrabad
Etaya
Ghed
Calpy
Narwah
Sirong
Rewah
Bidjigur
Mirzapore
Chunar
BENARES
Oude
Nepaul
Part of TARTARY
Lassa
Sampoo River
BOOTAN
Dellamcotta
Assam
Burrampooter R
Gaur
Moorshedabad
Gilhal
Chittigong
Aracan
Chultra
Ramgur
Chuita-Nagpour
CALCUTTA
Ganges R
Sambalpour
Ruttunpour
Kirsgur
Raypour
Degpur
Burhanpour
Omrawutty
Hoshingabad
Royaltol
Mundu
Mundlah
Jaurey
Burma
Gangpur
Sangpur
Boad
Balasore
Ougein
Siroug
Pilsea
Chanderee
Callinger
Mirzapore
Sinde R
Jumna R
Ganges R
Soane R
Gogra R
Burrampooter R
Megna R
Mahanadi R

A General View of the principal ROADS and DIVISIONS of HINDOOSTAN.
BOMBAY
POONAH
NIZAM
HYDRABAD
TIPPOO
SERINGAPATAM
MADRAS
CARNATIC
MALABAR
COROMANDEL
SARKARS
Burhampoor
Aurungabad
Jaulnah
Gooty
Nellore
Ongole
Cuddapah
Hydroleg
Bangalore
Velore
Vaniambaddy
Darwar
Goa
Carwar
Mangalore
Tellicherry
Calicut
Paniany
Cochin
Travancore
Cape Comorin
Trincomaly
Negapatam
Tanjore
Madura
Dindigul
Coimbetore
Palacatcherry
Condapilly
Rajamundry
Ellore
Masulipatam
Gingeram
Rampa
Warangole
Gelconda
Beder
Godavery R
Tapty R
Nerbudda R
Taptee R
Bunner R
Kistna R
Pennar R
Gundlacamma R
Gumsoar
Jaypour
Raypour
Rayguer
Degroor
Chanda
Mahar
Ahmednagur
Sholapour
Calberga
Salapour
Vingapour
Ramulla
Severndroog
Cheriah
Sunderdoo
Bassein
Surat
Baroach
Nandurbar
Omrawutty
Jaffierabad
Doulatabad
Perinda
Patan
Aurungabad
Jagarnaut
Ganjam
Calastore
Aratam
British Miles
A. Kincaid Delt
J. Fraser Sculp.

vided among a great number of petty princes or governors, all of whom own ſubjection to one ſovereign.

Theſe are the kingdoms moſt commonly mentioned by geographers throughout the peninſula of India beyond the Ganges; on which we ſhall only farther remark, that they abound in a great degree with thoſe ſplendid commodities which mankind in all ages have ſo much coveted, and for which they have been reſorted to from the earlieſt ages, from the moſt remote corners of the world. Whatever happineſs can be derived from the poſſeſſion of theſe things, the inhabitants, or ſome part of them moſt certainly enjoy, as well as an affluence of what is truly neceſſary or uſeful. But all theſe advantages are perhaps over balanced by the exceſſive precarious tenure on which life is held, by reaſon of the mortal diſeaſes ſo frequently produced by the unhealthineſs of the climate, the many accidents from poiſonous and ravenous animals, and the frequency of earthquakes, volcanoes, and all the moſt terrible phenomena of nature.

INDIA within the GANGES, or EMPIRE of the GREAT MOGUL, including the PENINSULA within the GANGES.

THOUGH, as has been already ſaid, the empire of the Mogul and the peninſula within the Ganges are uſually accounted two diſtinct parts of India, and as ſuch are treated ſeparately by geographical writers; yet, on account of the great connection, which for ſo long has ſubſiſted betwixt this part of the world and Great Britain, we ſhall here treat of them under one head, diſtinguiſhing them only as far as is neceſſary to point out to the reader the differences of ſoil, air, &c. and the different cities and tranſactions belonging to each.

Situation, Extent, and Boundaries. India within the Ganges, including the empire of the Great Mogul, is ſituated between 66 and 92° 20′ eaſt longitude, and eight and 32° 30′ north latitude. It is bounded on the north by Tartary and Thibet; on the eaſt by Mackley and Aracan; on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean; and on the weſt by Perſia. Its greateſt extent, from north to ſouth, is about 2000 miles; and from eaſt to weſt 1660.

Air and Climate. Throughout the empire of the Great Mogul, the winds generally blow ſix months from the ſouth, and as many from the north. The air is exceſſively hot in the inland parts, where it cannot be cooled by the ſea breezes, which refreſh the ſea-coaſts. Hence, in ſome parts of this country, they are incommoded by the hot winds, and ſhowers of ſand ſpoken of under the head of Arabia. The climate is unfavourable

to European conſtitutions; and moſt people, who come from this or other northern countries, are generally ſeized with fevers or fluxes on their firſt arrival. The moſt proper method of avoiding theſe, is to live temperately, to avoid the night air, and to uſe the Peruvian bark.

In the peninſula there is a ſtrange diverſity of ſeaſons, owing to a chain of mountains running almoſt from one end of it to another; on one ſide of which, towards Thibet, it is winter, while on the other it is ſummer. On the coaſt of Malabar, a wind begins in June to blow from the ſea, which laſts four months, with continual rains; and during all this time the weather is quite ſerene on the coaſt of Coromandel. About the end of October the monſoons begin on that coaſt, and the weather changes. Furious ſtorms of wind, with moſt violent thunder and lightning come on, which are extremely dangerous for ſhipping, as the coaſt is deſtitute of harbours. For this reaſon the Britiſh ſhips annually return from Coromandel to Bombay on the Malabar coaſt. The air in general is more mild on this peninſula than in the empire of the Mogul, the wind generally ſhifting every twelve hours, which produces a conſiderable degree of coolneſs. From midnight to noon, however, it is exceſſively hot, the wind then blowing off the land; but, during the other twelve hours, when it blows from the ſea, the air is remarkably cooled.

Mountains. Part of that vaſt chain of mountains named Caucaſus, which run through the moſt of Aſia, reach alſo to this country. By theſe and the mountains of Nagorcote, India is ſeparated from Perſia, Uſbec Tartary, and Thibet. The mountains of Balagate, or Balegaut, are thoſe which divide the peninſula of India from north to ſouth, and occaſion the diverſity of ſeaſons already mentioned; their height is ſo great, that the weſtern monſoon is ſtopped by them, ſo that the rains begin ſooner on the Malabar than the Coromandel coaſt, as has been already mentioned.

Rivers. The principal rivers of the Mogul empire are the Indus, the Ganges, and Burrampooter; all of them mighty ſtreams, and held in great veneration by the inhabitants. Thoſe of the peninſula are of a ſmaller ſize. The principal of them are the Kiſtna, which is likewiſe venerated by the people; the Cattack, or Mahanada, the Gonga, Cauvery, and the Nerbudda, &c. beſides numbers of ſmaller ſtreams in both countries.

The Indus riſes among the mountains of Caucaſus, and running in a ſouth-weſt direction, paſſes through the kingdom of Caſſimere, and weſt of the city of Attock, Moultan, &c. emptying itſelf by ſeveral mouths into the Indian Ocean, 73 miles below the city of Tatta. It is very broad, deep, and navigable by veſſels of any burden; inſomuch, that Alexander the Great conveyed his whole army down to the ocean, through an immenſe tract of country, by means of this river. Unfortunately, however, the mouth of this fine ſtream is ſo choaked up with ſand, that no veſſels can enter it from the ocean, having no more than 2½ fathoms water even in ſpring tides. It is remarkable for being the boundary of Alexander's empire, and the limit of the conqueſts of Kouli Khan. Like other large rivers which run through warm regions, and take their riſe among mountains, it overflows its banks at certain ſeaſons, and thereby fertilizes the ſoil of the adjacent country.

The Ganges, as well as the Indus and Kiſtna, are held in the greateſt veneration by the ſuperſtitious Gentoos, who imagine that their waters have the power of waſhing away ſins. The Ganges, however, ſeems to be accounted the moſt holy of the three; for, according to the tradition

of

of the Bramins, it guſhes out of the foot of the god Viſtnou himſelf; from whence they ſay it is called *Padda*, or the foot, in the Shanſcritta language already mentioned; and that, in its courſe towards Hindooſtan, it paſſes through a hole in a vaſt rock, which has the ſhape of a cow's head.

The true ſource of this river, as well as of the Burrampooter, is in the mountains of Thibet, which M. Rennel looks upon to be among the higheſt in the eaſtern hemiſphere; though he could not exactly determine their height: however, it may in ſome meaſure be gueſſed from their riſing conſiderably above the horizon, when viewed from the plains of Bengal, at the diſtance of 150 miles. From theſe mountains the Ganges takes a weſterly courſe, running generally through deſert and uninhabited places for the ſpace of 800 miles, when it arrives at Hurdwar, or Hurdoar, in latitude 30 degrees, and ruſhes through the opening above mentioned, called the *Cow's Head*.

The rock through which the river paſſes in this place has never been viſited by any European, and the natives themſelves allow that it has no reſemblance to the head of a cow. After paſſing through it, however, it flows with a ſmooth navigable ſtream for no leſs a ſpace than 1350 miles, when at laſt it falls by many mouths into the ocean. During its courſe it receives eleven rivers, none of them ſmaller than the Thames, and ſeveral equal in magnitude to the Rhine, beſides innumerable ſtreams of leſſer note. Hence it greatly exceeds the Nile in the quantity of water, though the latter exceeds it almoſt a third part in the length of its courſe. To this vaſt influx of rivers we are to attribute the exceſs of quantity of water in the Ganges above many of the rivers in the northern part of Aſia which have a much longer courſe *. Its bed is very unequal in breadth. From its firſt arrival at Hurdwar, after leaving the rock called the *Cow's Head*, to its conflux with the Jumna, (on the ſouth of the city of Allahabad) which is the firſt river of any conſequence it meets with, it is generally from a mile to a mile and a quarter broad. Hitherto its courſe is ſtraight in compariſon with the after part; but by reaſon of the windings †, it afterwards increaſes to three miles,

*Here Mr Rennel, from whoſe account in the Philoſophical Tranſactions this deſcription is taken, gives an account of the length of ſeveral of the moſt remarkable rivers in the world; which, as we hope will not be unacceptable to our readers, we ſhall here extract.

	Proportional Lengths.		Proportional Lengths.		
Thames	1	Ganges	9 1/3	Lena	11 1/4
Rhine	5 1/3	Burrampooter	9 1/3	Hoonho in China	13 1/3
Danube	7	Nou-kian or Ava	9 1/3	Kian-keu, ditto	15 1/3
Wolga	9 1/3	Jeniſea	10	Nile	12 1/3
Indus	5 1/3	Oby	10 1/3	Miſſiſſippi	8
Euphrates	8 1/3	Amoor	11	Amazons	15 3/4

† Here our author takes occaſion to make ſeveral curious remarks upon the windings of rivers in general, and particularly thoſe of the Ganges. They neceſſarily render the channels of rivers wider, becauſe they impede the force of the current and render the courſe of the ſtream ſlower; ſo that the quantity of water, continually pouring down, cannot paſs in the ſame time, and thus requires a larger ſpace. The ſwiftneſs with which rivers in general move, he ſuppoſes to be owing to the force impreſſed upon the water at the ſource, or where adventitious waters are poured in, more than to the mere deſcent.

miles, and that in places where no iſlands intervene. The ſtream which runs within this bed varies continually, according to the ſeaſon of the year. It is loweſt in April, when the breadth varies from 400 yards to a mile and a quarter; but the common breadth is three quarters of a mile. In ſome places it is fordable above the conflux with the Jumna, but not below; for the acceſſion of new rivers always increaſes the depth more than the breadth. At 500 miles from the ſea the channel is 30 feet deep when the river is at the loweſt; and this depth is continued to the ſea, where, ſuddenly expanding, it loſes its power to ſweep away the banks of ſand and mud which collect at the mouth, and thus the principal branch cannot be entered by large veſſels.

In its paſſage to the ſea the branches of the Ganges incloſe a large tract of country, forming an iſland ſimilar to that made by the Nile, and called the *Delta* of Egypt, but much larger. This iſland begins at 220 miles diſtance from the ſea in a direct line, but 300 including the windings. The two weſtern branches are called the Coſſimbuzar and Jellinghy rivers, from towns of the ſame name; which, uniting their ſtreams, form what is called the Hoogly river, on which the town of Calcutta is ſituated, and which is generally navigable; but the only one of all the ſtreams into which this celebrated river is divided, that can at all ſeaſons of the year be navigated, is the *Chundah*. The Hoogly river, however, has a much deeper outlet to the ſea than the principal branch; though, from the difficulties that occur in navigating its entrance, ſome have ſuppoſed that the channels are ſhallow; but Mr Rennel is of opinion, that theſe are occaſioned by bringing the ſhips acroſs ſome of the ſand-banks, which project ſo far into the ſea, that the channels cannot eaſily be traced between them.

That part of the Delta, or iſland formed by the Ganges, which borders on the ſea, is compoſed of a multitude of creeks and rivers, forming an intricate labyrinth, and all of them ſalt, except thoſe which communicate with the principal branch. This tract is known by the name of the Woods, or *Sunderbunds*, and its extent is equal to that of the principality of Wales; but it is ſo completely involved in woods, and ſo much infeſted with tigers and other ravenous creatures, that every attempt to clear it has hitherto miſcarried. The lower part of this iſland is about 180 miles broad, and that of the two branches which bound it may be about 10 miles each; ſo that if we add this to the 180 juſt mentioned, we ſhall have 200 miles for the diſtance to which the Ganges expands its branches where it communicates with the ſea.

The courſe of this river from Hurdwar, in lat. 30, to the ſea, is in an uniform plain, without any deſcent perceptible to the eye. A ſection of one of its branches, for no leſs a ſpace than 60 miles, was taken by order of Mr Haſtings; when it was found to have a deſcent of about nine inches per mile, reckoning in a ſtraight line, and allowing for the curvature of the earth; but, by reaſon of the windings, this deſcent was reduced to leſs than four inches per mile; and from ſeveral experiments made on the velocity of the water in different places, there is no reaſon to believe that the deſcent is any where greater. In the dry months the motion of the water at a medium is leſs than three miles an hour. In the wet ſeaſon, and during the draining off the waters from the inundated lands, the current runs from five to ſix miles an hour; but there are inſtances of its running ſeven, or even eight miles, in particular ſituations, and under certain circumſtances. In one experiment of our author,

thor, his boat was carried 56 miles in eight hours, and that againſt ſo ſtrong a wind, that the boat had no ſenſible progreſſive motion through the water. When we conſider that the velocity of the ſtream is three miles in one ſeaſon, and five more in another on the ſame deſcent of four inches per mile, and that the motion of the inundation is only half a mile per hour on a much greater deſcent, no further proof is required how ſmall the proportion of velocity is that the deſcent communicates.

The Ganges, like other large rivers, annually overflows it banks to a great diſtance on each ſide; but Mr Rennel is of opinion that the inundation owes its increaſe as much to the rain that falls upon the country of Hindooſtan, and ſtagnates on each ſide of the river, as to the augmentation of the ſtream itſelf. Moſt writers are of opinion, that this is occaſioned by the melting of ſnow in the mountains of Thibet; but this cauſe does not appear ſufficient to our author. He obſerves that the rainy ſeaſon begins in the mountains early in April, and by the end of that month, when the rain-water has reached Bengal, the rivers begin to riſe, though very ſlowly; the increaſe being only about an inch each day for a fortnight. It then augments to two or three inches before any quantity of rain falls in the flat countries; and when the rain becomes general, the increaſe is about five inches each day. By the latter end of July, all the lower parts of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and Burrampooter, are covered with water, and form one vaſt innundation, not leſs than 100 miles wide; nothing appearing but trees and villages, with here and there the top of ſome elevated ſpot, the artificial mount of ſome deſerted village. The inundations of the Ganges differ from thoſe of the Nile in this reſpect, that the latter owe their origin entirely to the rain which falls in Abyſſinia; but thoſe in Bengal ariſe as much from the rain that falls there, as from the waters of the Ganges; and as a proof of this, it is obſerved, that the lower grounds are all flooded long before the channel of the river is filled. It muſt alſo be obſerved, that the banks of the river, and the country for ſome way on each ſide, are conſiderably higher than that which lies at ſome diſtance; ſo that the rain water cannot get off by the channel of the river, and having no conſiderable deſcent to carry it off otherwiſe, ſtagnates on the ſurface like a lake. The reaſon of this ſuperior height of the banks is moſt probably the depoſition of mud brought down by the river, and which, when it overflows, is let fall in greateſt quantities near the river. The high ground in ſome ſeaſons is overflowed to the height of a foot or more; but the country at ſome diſtance is frequently twelve feet under water. Even when the inundation is at its utmoſt height, the courſe of the river is eaſily known by its rapid and muddy ſtream, as well as by the long graſs and reeds which grow on its banks; for the waters of the inundation acquire a blackiſh hue by long ſtagnation upon the vegetable ſubſtances which cover the ground. As ſome tracts of land require leſs moiſture than others, and yet, by the lowneſs of their ſituation, are expoſed to a long continuance of the inundation, dykes have been built at a vaſt expence to preſerve thoſe places, which after all do not always anſwer the purpoſe, by reaſon of the ſmall degree of tenacity which the earth they are compoſed of poſſeſſes. While the river continues in this ſwelled ſtate, the tide entirely loſes its effect; nor is even its ebbing and flowing to be perceived, except very near the ſea. If a ſtrong wind happens to blow up the river, the deſcent of the waters toward the ſea is prevented, and thus the inundation is increaſed ſometimes to the

height

height of two or more feet than uſual, which ſometimes produces very fatal effects. The greateſt increaſe from this cauſe of which we have any account was in the year 1763, when by a ſtrong gale of wind, conſpiring with a high ſpring tide, the waters were raiſed to the height of ſix feet above the ordinary ſtandard. By this the inhabitants of a conſiderable diſtrict were ſwept away, with their houſes and cattle; and what added to the misfortune was, that in that part of the country there was ſcarce a tree where a drowning perſon might attempt to ſave himſelf. It is obſervable that the inundation never riſes ſo high in places near the ſea-coaſt as in thoſe farther in land, as will appear from the following ſtatement of the gradual increaſe of the river at Jellinghy and at Dacca.

	Jellinghy Town.		Dacca Town.	
	feet.	inches.	feet.	inches.
In May it roſe	6	0	2	4
June	9	6	4	6
July	12	6	5	6
Firſt half of Auguſt	4	0	1	11
	32	0	14	3

The decreaſe of the inundation does not always keep pace with that of the river; but about the end of October, when the rains are nearly ceaſed, the water quickly flies off by evaporation, leaving the ground highly manured, and in an excellent ſtate for receiving the ſeed after the ſimple operation of plowing. The quantity of water diſcharged by this vaſt river is computed to be no leſs than 80,000 cubic feet in one ſecond, and that in the dry ſeaſon; but when the channel is full, 405,000 feet are ſuppoſed to be diſcharged in the ſame ſpace; ſo that the medium quantity throughout the year may be eſtimated at 180,000 feet.

The Burrampooter, which is ſtill larger than the Ganges, riſes among the ſame mountains, and at a very ſmall diſtance from the ſource of the latter; but takes a courſe directly oppoſite. After running rapidly eaſtward through Thibet, it waſhes the territory of Laſſa, where the grand Lima reſides; then, deviating to the ſouth-eaſt, it approaches to within 220 miles of the moſt weſterly province of China, called Yu-nan; then, turning ſuddenly to the weſt, and paſſing through the kingdom of Aſſam, it enters Bengal from the north-eaſt. In the firſt part of its courſe it is called the *Saupoo*, or *Zanciu*; nor is it exactly known at what place its name is changed to Burrampooter, only it is certain that the people of Aſſam call it *Burrampooter*. After entering Bengal it makes a circuit round the Garrow mountains, and then, altering its courſe to the ſouth, it joins the Ganges about 40 miles from the ſea. During its courſe for 400 miles through Bengal, the two rivers ſo much reſemble one another, that one deſcription may ſerve for both; but during the laſt 60 miles, the Burrampooter runs in a ſtream which is regularly from four to five miles broad, and, were it not for the freſhneſs of its water, might paſs for an arm of the ſea; while the junction of theſe two mighty rivers below Luckipour, forms a body of freſh water perhaps not to be equalled in the world. It forms a gulf interſperſed with iſlands, many of them inferior neither in ſize nor fertility to the iſle

of

of Wight. The water is ſcarcely brackiſh at the extremities of theſe iſlands; and, during the rainy ſeaſon, the ſurface of the ſea is quite freſh for many leagues out.

The various channels by which theſe rivers diſcharge themſelves into the ſea, are ſubject to a ſudden and violent irruption of the tide, very dangerous to ſhipping, called a *Bore*. This is particularly violent in the channels betwixt the iſlands laſt mentioned, where its height is ſaid ſometimes to exceed 12 feet, and is ſo terrible, that no boat will venture to croſs at a ſpring tide; but after paſſing them, no veſtige of a bore is to be met with. From the time that the monſoon changes in October, to the middle of March, the rivers are in a ſtate of tranquillity; but about that time the *north-weſters* begin in the eaſtern parts of Bengal, and may be expected every two or three days. Theſe are violent ſqualls of wind and rain, which ſometimes come on ſo ſuddenly, that they produce the moſt fatal effects, and have been known to ſink whole fleets of trading boats at once. They are more frequent, and come on ſooner in the eaſtern than the weſtern part of Bengal, and happen more frequently towards the cloſe of the day than at any other time; however, as they are indicated ſome hours before by the uncommon appearance of the ſky and clouds, there is generally an opportunity of getting into ſome place of ſafety.

The Kiſtna divides the Carnatic from Golconda and runs through Viſiapour into the interior parts of the Decan. Little is known concerning this river till it comes within 70 miles of the ſea. General Smith remarks, that it was fordable in the month of March both above and below its conflux with another river called the Keema; that below this junction the channel was 600 yards wide, and, by reaſon of the number and diverſity of its rocks, afforded an uncommon appearance.

The Soane and Nerbudda rivers have their ſource from a lake on the ſouthern confines of the province of Allahabad. Conjointly with the Ganges they form an iſland in the ſouthern part of Hindooſtan; flowing in an oppoſite direction for no leſs than 1500 miles. Neither of theſe rivers are much known.

Capes, Seas, Bays, and Straits. The moſt remarkable of theſe are the Capes of Comorin and Diu, the Indian Sea, the Bays of Bengal, and Cambaya, with the Straits of Ramanokoel.

Inhabitants. To what has been already obſerved on this ſubject, when ſpeaking of India in general, we ſhall only add, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and that both ſexes have regular features. By reaſon of the prohibitions of one caſt from marrying with another, each of theſe diviſions have ſomething in their appearance peculiar to themſelves; and ſome of the caſts are remarkable for their beauty, while in others the contrary quality is equally predominant. Beſides the Bramins already mentioned, who are the true inſtructors of the people in the Gentoo religion, there are a kind of Mahometan beggars, named *Fakirs*, or *Faquirs*, who go about, pretending to great auſterity and devotion, in order to procure alms. The number of theſe is ſaid not to be leſs than 800,000. Analogous to theſe are the *Joghis*, or *Joguis*, who are idolaters, but agree in the ſame profeſſion of auſterity, and are much more numerous than the fakirs. The Bramins pretend to great purity of life, and commonly follow the profeſſion of brokers, being of the Gentoo religion, or ſomething very like it. The Perſees are very induſtrious, and worſhip the element of fire, though they

they ſay they do ſo only as a ſymbol of the divinity. They pretend to have the works of Zoroaſter, which ſome ſuppoſe to contain important ſecrets in ancient hiſtory, while others look upon them to be fictions of no great antiquity. The generality of the people in this, as in other hot countries, delight in cool walks, fountains, &c. They are fond of tumbling, dancing, and performances of mountebanks; they alſo take pleaſure in card-playing, and make much uſe of barbarous muſic both on wind and ſtringed inſtruments. People of rank delight in hunting, to which they frequently train up leopards. In this diverſion they uſe the bow as well as fire-arms. Manufacturers work in the open air; the houſes of the commonalty are but mean; and, being thatched, are liable to accidents by fire. Thoſe of people of rank are neat, commodious, and frequently magnificent.

In the peninſula the inhabitants are blacker than in other parts of India; whence ſome have imagined that they come from Ethiopia. They have very little notion of owing any allegiance to the Great Mogul; all their princes looking upon themſelves as totally independent.

Provinces, Cities, &c. As the province of Bengal has been long ſubject to Great Britain, and by its connection with it has now become very intereſting, we ſhall here treat of it in the firſt place. Its fertility is aſtoniſhing, and is ſaid to exceed that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; ſo that proviſions of all kinds are here exceſſively cheap. Great quantities of rice and other kinds of grain are produced here, beſides a great variety of fruits. Silk, callicoes, ſalt-petre, gum lac, opium, civet, and wax, are exported from Bengal to all parts of the world. Sugar-canes are alſo produced here; and ſuch is the extreme fertility of this province, that it is commonly reckoned the ſtore-houſe of the Eaſt Indies. A great number of canals are cut acroſs the country from the Ganges, which extend for more than 100 leagues on each ſide of that river, and prove of great benefit to commerce. The capital of all the Britiſh ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies is Calcutta, ſituated on the river Hoogly already mentioned. It is defended by a fortreſs named Fort William, which, however, is ſaid to be irregular, and untenable if properly attacked. The town itſelf is under an Engliſh government. Formerly it was immediately under the juriſdiction of the Eaſt India Company, but by a regulation made in 1773, the ſupreme government was veſted in a governor and council choſen by parliament, as has already been mentioned in the hiſtory of England. It does not appear, however, that this inſtitution has been of any real ſervice to the India Company, or to the inhabitants of the country, who have hitherto been oppreſſed in a very ſcandalous manner; but it is to be hoped, from the known character of the preſent governor, (earl Cornwallis) that matters will be put on a better footing than formerly; and that of the Britiſh nation, for juſtice and humanity, will no longer ſuffer from the miſconduct and rapacity of a few individuals. The Gentoo religion, in all its abſurdity, prevails throughout Bengal; but we are happy now to have an opportunity of relating that at laſt a ſeminary of learning has been eſtabliſhed by Sir William Jones at Calcutta; ſo that after ſo many ages of ignorance and darkneſs, a dawn of knowledge once more appears in the Eaſt. In this province alſo is the celebrated Gentoo univerſity of Benares, where the Bramins have a famous obſervatory formerly mentioned.

Fifty miles to the northward of Calcutta, upon the river Ganges, lies the town of Hoogly, a place remarkable for its commerce, and where

the Dutch have a factory well fortified. The largeſt city of Bengal is ſaid to be Dacca, where there are Dutch and Engliſh factories. Chandernagore was formerly a conſiderable ſettlement of the French, and very ſtrongly fortified; notwithſtanding which it was taken by Colonel Clive, in conjunction with admirals Watſon and Pocock, in the war of 1755. It was alſo taken in the laſt war, but reſtored at the peace in 1783. Diamonds are found in this country, and 10,000 people from Saumelpour, a place about 90 miles to the north of Hoogly, are employed in ſearching for them. The reſidence of the nabob of Bengal is Patna, or Moorſhedabad.

The moſt extenſive province in all Hindooſtan is Agra, containing the city of that name, formerly the ſeat of the Mogul himſelf, and the capital of the whole empire. In this city the Dutch have a factory, but the Britiſh have none. Agra is ſaid to be the largeſt fortified place in India. The preſent capital of Hindooſtan is Delhi, which is ſaid to be a fine city, and adorned with all the magnificence of the Eaſt. Formerly the ſtables belonging to the emperor contained no fewer than 12,000 Arabian, Perſian, and Tartarian horſes, beſides which there were 500 elephants conſtantly kept in this place. Theſe horſes are ſaid to be fed with bread, butter, and ſugar, in the morning, and rice-milk in the evening, at certain ſeaſons, when the forage in the neighbourhood of Delhi is burnt up by the heat of the ſun, which is not unfrequently the caſe.

Sindy is the province which borders upon Perſia. Its capital is named Tatta, and is ſaid to be a ſpacious place, but ſuffered very much in the year 1699, from a plague which carried off 80,000 of its inhabitants. The principal manufacture carried on here is that of palanquins, a kind of covered litters, carried on mens ſhoulders. Ten men are uſually hired to carry a palanquin, four of which are employed at a time; the others relieving one another at proper intervals. Thus the carriage proceeds often at the rate of 40 miles *per* day. Theſe porters are hired at the ſmall ſum of nine or ten ſhillings *per* month, out of which pittance they maintain themſelves. The city of Tatta is excellently ſupplied with fiſh from the river Indus, which is about a mile broad there. The carp are particularly fine.

The province of Moultan is celebrated for its iron and ſugar canes; but otherwiſe is not fruitful. The inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in horſes, dealing with the Perſians and Tartars for about 60,000 of theſe animals annually.

Caſſimere is ſaid to be one of the fineſt provinces of India, and to contain 100,000 villages. The inhabitants are almoſt as fair as the Europeans, and the women are celebrated for their beauty. It is ſurrounded with mountains, ſo that the acceſs is difficult, but it is ſaid to be entirely free from all ravenous creatures. The capital, called alſo Caſſimere, is ſituated on a large lake.

Lahor is a large province, formerly celebrated in the hiſtory of Hindooſtan, and is ſtill famous for producing the beſt ſugars in the empire. Its capital, called likewiſe Lahor, was formerly of vaſt extent, being no leſs than nine miles in length, but it is now greatly decayed.

The other provinces of the Mogul empire are thoſe of Orixa, or Oriſſa, part of which belongs to Britain; Candeiſh; Malwa; Oude; Varad; Behar; and Allahabad, concerning all which nothing can be ſaid that is not

common to them with the others already described. In many of them the fruits, plants, and flowers of Europe thrive as in their native ſoil.

The provinces of the weſtern peninſula are,

1. *Madura*, formerly an independent kingdom, and about the ſize of that of Portugal, beginning at the moſt ſoutherly point of the peninſula called Cape Comorin. In former times the ſovereign of Madura had no fewer than 70 princes tributary to him, though now he himſelf is reduced to a very dependent ſtate. The capital of his kingdom is Tritchinopoli. On this coaſt is a pearl fiſhery, for which the country ſeems moſtly to be valuable.

2. *Tanjour*, a ſmall kingdom, lies to the eaſtward of Madura, and the prince was very rich, till he was plundered by the nabob of Arcot, in conjunction with ſome Britiſh ſubjects. In this country the Daniſh Eaſt India Company have a ſettlement named Tranquebar; the Dutch have alſo the fortreſs of Negapatnam, which was taken from them laſt war, but reſtored in 1783. The capital city is alſo called Tanjour.

4. The *Carnatic* has the river Kiſtna to the north; the kingdoms of Meſſaur and Tanjour on the ſouth; Viſiapour on the weſt; and the bay of Bengal on the eaſt. It is about 350 miles long, from north to ſouth, and 270 broad from eaſt to weſt. The country is populous, fertile, and accounted healthy. In this country lies Pondicherry, the former capital of all the French ſettlements in the Indies. Here alſo is the Britiſh fort of Cuddalore, or St David's, with a diſtrict belonging to it. It is a ſtrong fortreſs, and thought to be a place of great importance. The capital of all the Britiſh ſettlements in this peninſula, however, is Madras, called alſo Fort St George. Here are two towns, called, from the complexion of the inhabitants, the Black and White Towns, both of which are protected by the fort, though the latter has ſome fortifications of its own. It is governed by a mayor and aldermen as in England. There is a diſtrict of 40 miles round, belonging to the town of Madras, but the produce is of little value. The ſituation of the place has been a ſubject of great complaint, though no expence has been ſpared by the Company to ſecure it in the moſt effectual manner, againſt any attempts of the natives. The badneſs of the ſituation ſeems to have originated from the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are under the direction of an officer belonging to the Great Mogul. By him theſe valuable mines are let out in ſmall ſpots by meaſure, and the ſpace afterwards incloſed with paliſadoes. A conſiderable trade is carried on from Madras with China, Perſia, and Mocha. The town and diſtrict of Madras are ſaid to contain about 80,000 people; but the only protection they have is from the Britiſh ſuperiority at ſea. The Carnatic is famous for being the ſeat of war betwixt the Britiſh and Hyder Ally, of which ſome account ſhall be given in our hiſtory. The capital city is Biſnagar.

5. *Myſore*, the original territory of Hyder Ally, lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Carnatic; but his dominions have been ſo much enlarged by his own conqueſts, and thoſe of his ſon Tippoo Saib, that it is impoſſible at preſent to aſſign their exact boundaries.

6. *Golconda* is famous for its diamonds; which, however, are all accounted the property of the Great Mogul. It is ſubject to the prince called the Nizam, or Soubah of the Decan. He is very powerful, and on occaſion can raiſe 100,000 men.

7. *Oriza*, partly ſubject to the Engliſh Eaſt India Company, lies to the northward of Golconda, extending in length about 550 miles, and in breadth

breadth about 240. In this province is a temple of an idol named *Jugaryunt*. The idol is a ſtrange figure, being no other than an irregular black ſtone of a pyramidal ſhape, having near the top two large diamonds to repreſent eyes, with a noſe and mouth painted with vermilion. Such as he is, however, Jagaryunt is attended by 500 prieſts.

8. *Decan* comprehends ſeveral kingdoms, of which the boundaries are very unſettled. In this tract are enumerated thoſe of Baglana, Balagate, Viſiapour, and Telenga. The principal cities of the Decan are Dowlatabad, and Aurengabad; the former being looked upon to be the ſtrongeſt place in all India. In the neighbourhood of this city is a moſt celebrated pagod, named Elora, where there are many thouſand figures, with innumerable apartments, chapels, tombs, &c. cut out of the ſolid rock. The whole is thought to be as magnificent a ſpecimen of human induſtry as ever exiſted. Baglana is the ſmalleſt province of the Decan, and lies to the weſtward of Telenga. Here the territory of the Portugueſe begins, and extends for 20 leagues to the northward of Goa; but they have now loſt many of their poſſeſſions, and thoſe which ſtill remain are greatly on the decline. Viſiapour is a large province, whoſe ſovereign is ſaid to have a revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to be able to raiſe 150,000 men.

9. *Guzerat* lies on the weſt ſide of the Gulf of Cambaya, and is one of the fineſt provinces in India, but the people are fierce and rapacious. Amed-abad, the capital, is ſaid to be capable of vying in wealth with the richeſt cities in Europe. The Britiſh have a factory in this place. Surat, where there is another flouriſhing Britiſh factory, is about 43 leagues diſtant. Telenga lies to the eaſtward of Golconda; the inhabitants ſpeak a language diſtinct from that of any other part of Hindooſtan.

10. *Malabar* gives name to the whole ſouth-weſt coaſt of the peninſula; but the kingdom, properly ſo called, lies to the weſt of Cape Comorin, and is alſo denominated the dominions of the Samorin. In a diſtrict of this kingdom, named *Cochin*, there are ſeveral thouſand Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, and that their records are engraven in Hebrew characters upon copper. Other colonies of Jews have been diſcovered in China, and ſeveral places in Aſia. In Cochin they are ſo poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. Cape Comorin, the ſouthmoſt promontory of this peninſula, is celebrated for uniting, in one garden the winter and ſummer ſeaſons; the trees being loaded with bloſſoms on the one ſide, while on the other they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This is owing to the chain of mountains formerly mentioned, called the Balagate mountains, which terminate at this promontory. The winds conſtantly oppoſe each other at the oppoſite ſides of this cape. The moſt remarkable places on this coaſt are Callicut, Tellichery, and Kannamore. At the firſt of theſe the French and Portugueſe, and at the ſecond the Engliſh, have a ſmall factory. Kannamore belongs to the Dutch, and is pretty ſtrongly fortified. The kingdom of Canara lies to the ſouthward of Goa, and reaches near to Calicut; the ſoil is famous for producing the rice with which almoſt all Europe, as well as ſome parts of India, are ſupplied. This country is ſaid to be always governed by a queen, whoſe ſon has the title of Rajah; and her ſubjects are reckoned the moſt civilized, as well as the braveſt, in all India. The Malabar language is much uſed throughout all the

Carnatic; and the country itſelf is rich and fertile, but much infeſted with green ſerpents, whoſe bite is incurable.

Beſides theſe kingdoms and diſtricts, there are many others of leſſer note. At the foot of the mountains of Getti live a ſet of people, who call themſelves the Chriſtians of St Thomas the apoſtle. The Dutch have a ſettlement named Pellicate to the north of Madras. The Engliſh have factories at Ganjam and Viſigapatam, and the Dutch have one at Narpore and Mauſulipatan, at which laſt place there is alſo a Britiſh factory.

Bombay is an iſland on the Malabar coaſt, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India Company, and has an harbour which will conveniently hold a thouſand ſail of ſhips. The iſland is about 20 miles long and ſeven broad, but is extremely barren, and deſtitute almoſt of every conveniency of life. The beſt water they have in this place is preſerved in ciſterns during the rainy ſeaſons. However, the iſland is a place of conſequence on account of its affording a proper ſtation to the ſhipping in going or returning from India. Formerly it was exceſſively unhealthy, but now is leſs productive of diſeaſes than before; for which no adequate reaſon has yet been aſſigned. There is a town upon the iſland about a mile long, but irregular and meanly built, in which, however, ſeveral black merchants have their abode. There are about 60,000 inhabitants of different nations, all of whom enjoy the exerciſe of their religion unmoleſted. Near Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, particularly one named Elephanta, where there is ſtill extant one of the moſt extraordinary antiquities in the world. At the landing place is the image of an elephant cut in ſtone, as big as the life. This ſtands at the foot of a mountain; from which figure, aſcending by a gentle ſlope, we enter a large temple near 100 feet long, and 40 broad. The roof is flat, and is ſupported by round pillars of the ſolid rock, whoſe capitals reſemble cuſhions flattened as it were by the weight they ſuſtain. Three gigantic figures are ſeated at the other end, but they have been greatly mutilated by the ſuperſtitious zeal of the Portugueſe. There are various other figures on the outſide of the temple; one of which bears ſome reſemblance to the judgement of Solomon. There is a door and colonnade of regular architecture, but none of them have any reſemblance to the works of the Gentoos. The iſland of Goa, belonging to the Portugueſe, is about 27 miles in compaſs, and has one of the fineſt as well as beſt fortified ports in India. Formerly the town of Goa could ſcarce be ſurpaſſed by the richeſt European cities; and even ſtill, though it has much declined, the viceroy is at pains to keep up, as well as he can, the remains of the ancient ſplendor. The peninſula of Salſette is dependent upon Goa; and to the ſouthward of this is the territory of Sunda, governed by a Rajah, who is tributary to the Great Mogul. There is an Engliſh factory at Corwar, which is reckoned one of the moſt pleaſant and healthy places on the Malabar coaſt.

The whole Soubahſhip of Bengal, with the diſtricts of Midnapour in Oriſſa, or Orixa, now make part of the Britiſh empire, and are ſaid to afford a revenue of two millions, after clearing every expence. The whole of their poſſeſſions in that part of the world are not leſs than 162,000 ſquare miles in extent, which is above 30,000 more than all Great Britain and Ireland; nor do they contain fewer than ten millions of people. As Hindooſtan, therefore, of late years has become very intereſting to every Briton, we have conſulted the lateſt publications on that ſubject. The

geographical

geographical part we have extracted from major Rennel's large map of Hindooſtan, publiſhed in 1788, a work of the utmoſt utility and merit, by which we are enabled to give the diviſions of this extenſive country different from former geographers. Mr Rennel has accompanied this map with a memoir, wherein many curious and intereſting particulars, both ancient and modern, are narrated; by which we are enabled to give an idea of the internal ſtrength of the native powers, ſuperior to any thing of the kind hitherto publiſhed. At the end of the hiſtorical part, we have added, in an alphabetical order, a liſt of the diſtances of the principal places in India, from twelve different ſtations, by which the diſtance of any two places may be found with eaſe.

Grand Diviſions	Chief Towns.	Grand Diviſions	Chief Towns.
Lahore	Lahore	Oriſſa or Orixa	Cattack, Jaypour
Moultan	Moultan	Golconda	Golconda
Sindy	Tatta	Viſiapour	Viſiapour, Poonah
Delhi	Delhi	Myſore	Siringapatam
Cutch	Boogebooge	Cochin	Cochin
Agimere	Agimere	Travancore	Travancore
Oude	Oude and Lucknow	Circars, north.	Cicacole, Benjamundry, Ellore, Condapily, and Condavir
Agra	Agra	Carnatic	Madras
Allahabad	Allahabad	Concan	Sunderdoo
Bahar	Patna and Boglepour	Canaranayrs	Mangalore, Barcelore.
Bengal	Calcutta		
Guzerat	Amedabad		
Malwa	Ougein		
Candeiſh	Burrampour		
Dowlatabad	Aurungabad		

Situation and Boundaries of the various Diviſions mentioned in the above Table.

1. *Lahore* is bounded on the eaſt by Sirinagur and Delhi; on the ſouth by Moultan; and on the weſt by the river Indus.

2. *Moultan* is bounded on the north by Lahore; on the eaſt by Delhi; on the ſouth by Agimere; and on the weſt by the river Indus.

3. *Sindy* ſtretches northward along the eaſt bank of the river Indus, which forms its boundary on the weſt; on the north it is bounded by Moultan; on the eaſt by the great ſandy deſert, called Regiſtna, running in a north direction from the gulf of Cutch; on the ſouth no leſs than 550 miles, and in ſome other places 154 broad.

4. *Delhi* is bounded on the north by Sirinagur; on the eaſt by Almora; on the ſouth by Agimere and Agra; and on the weſt by Moultan.

5. *Cutch* is bounded on the north by the ſandy deſert of Regiſtna; on the eaſt by Guzerat; and on the ſouth and weſt by the gulf of Cutch and the Indian Ocean.

6. *Agimere* is bounded on the north by Moultan and Delhi; on the eaſt by Agra; and on the ſouth by Malwa.

7. *Oude* is bounded on the north by Gorkah; on the east by Bahar; on the south by Allahabad; and on the west by Agra.

8. *Agra* is bounded on the north by Delhi; on the east by Oude; on the west by Agimere; and on the south by Malwa.

9. *Allahabad* is bounded on the north by Oude; on the east by Bahar; on the south by Berar; and on the west by Malwa.

10. *Bahar* is bounded on the north by Napaul, a division of Bootan; on the east by Bengal; on the south by Oriſſa; and on the east by Allahabad and Berar.

11. *Bengal* is bounded on the north by Bootan; on the east by Aſſam and Meckly, two diviſions of India beyond the Ganges; on the ſouth by the gulf or bay of Bengal.

12. *Guzerat* is bounded on the north by Agimere; on the weſt by Malwa; on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean; and on the weſt by Cutch.

13. *Malwa* is bounded on the north by Agimere; on the eaſt by Allahabad; on the ſouth by Candeiſh; and on the weſt by Guzerat.

14. *Candeiſh* is bounded on the north by Malwa; on the eaſt by Berar; on the ſouth by Dowlatabad; and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean.

15. *Dowlatabad* is bounded on the north by Candeiſh; on the eaſt by Golconda; on the ſouth by Viſiapour; and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean.

16. *Oriſſa* is bounded on the north by Bahar; on the eaſt by Bengal; on the ſouth by the northern Circars; and on the weſt by a part of India, lying to the north-eaſt of Golconda, ſaid to be unexplored by any European, but included in that diviſion named Berar.

17. *Golconda* is bounded on the north by Berar; on the eaſt by the unexplored country above mentioned; on the ſouth by the Carnatic and Myſore; and on the weſt by Dowlatabad and Viſiapour.

18. *Viſiapour* is bounded on the north by Dowlatabad; on the eaſt by Golconda; on the ſouth by Myſore; and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean.

19. *Myſore* is bounded on the north by Viſiapour; on the eaſt by the Carnatic; on the ſouth by Cochin and Travancore; and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean.

20. *Cochin* is bounded on the north by Myſore; on the eaſt by Madura; on the ſouth by Travancore; and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean.

21. *Travancore* is bounded on the north by Cochin; on the eaſt by Madura; on the ſouth and weſt by the Indian Ocean.

22. *Circars Northern* are bounded on the north by the unexplored part of India formerly mentioned; on the eaſt and ſouth by the Gulf of Bengal; and on the weſt by Golconda. They are commonly denominated the Five Northern Circars, from that number of diviſions, viz. Cicacole, Bajamundry, Ellore, and Condapily, which number belong to the Britiſh, and Guntoor to its own Nizam. The Britiſh diviſion comprehends the ſea coaſt from the Chalka Lake, 68 miles ſouth-weſt of the city of Cattack, and in the ſame direction to the northern bank of the river Kiſtnah. They are a long narrow ſlip of country, about 330 miles in length, and from 75 to 20 broad.

23. *Carnatic* is bounded on the north by Golconda; on the eaſt by the Bay of Bengal; on the ſouth by the Gulf of Manara; and on the

weſt

west by Myſore. It contains Tinevelly, Madura, Marawars, Tanjour, Jaghire, and Ongole.

24. *Concan* is bounded on the north by Dowlatabad; on the eaſt by Viſiapour; on the ſouth by Canaranayrs; and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean.

25. *Canaranayrs* is bounded on the north by Concan; on the eaſt by Myſore properly ſo called, of which it is a diviſion; on the ſouth by Cochin; and on the weſt by the Indian Ocean. Twenty-ſeven miles ſouth of Sunderdoo, the capital, is the town of Goa, belonging to the Portugueſe, of which we have already made mention.

The principal cities in theſe diviſions are the following:

1. *Lahore*, the capital of the Seiks, is the moſt weſtern nation of Hindooſtan, and ſince the downfall of the empire of the Mogul, they have acquired very extenſive dominions; however, their power cannot be eſtimated in proportion to their poſſeſſions, as they do not form one entire ſtate, but are compoſed of many ſmall ones, each independent of the other. Reſpecting their internal government they are connected by a federal union only. Of late years they have extended their territories into the provinces of Delhi very rapidly; ſo that the boundaries in that quarter extended to the banks of the Jumna river, near to Delhi the capital; and they now make excurſions to the very banks of the Ganges; on the ſouth they are bounded by the ſandy deſart of Regiſtna; and on the ſouth-weſt their boundaries meets that of Sindy at Bhahor; and the river Indus on the weſt bounds them as high up as the city of Attock; and the northern line is the chain of mountains that lie towards Thibet and Caſhmere, by which it will be found they poſſeſs the greater part of that diviſion called Moultan, and weſtern of the province of Delhi.

2. *Ougein* is the capital of Madajee Sindia, who, with Tuckajee Holkar, poſſeſſes the principal part of Malwa. Ougein is a city of great antiquity. It evidently appears, both as to name and poſition, in Ptolemy under the name Ozene. During the laſt war, Madajee Sindia appeared very jealous of the Britiſh power in this quarter; for it is ſaid he expreſſed a diſapprobation of the brigade from Guzerat taking its route through Ougein, in its way to the Bengal provinces; ſo that the detachment returned nearly by the ſame road as it went, as far as Serong.

3. *Amedabad*, the capital of Guzerat, is a very conſiderable city, and ſucceeded Mahmoodabad the former capital. It is one of the beſt fortified cities of Hindooſtan, and made a noble defence when attacked by general Goddard in 1780. On the peace of 1783 it was reſtored to its former poſſeſſors the Poonah Mahrattas.

4. *Burhanpour*, the capital of Candeiſh, is a flouriſhing city, pleaſantly ſituated in a moſt delightful country. It is now in the hands of the Poonah, or weſtern Mahrattas.

5. *Nagpour* is the capital of the eaſtern diviſion of the Mahratta empire, and almoſt in the centre of India: from it roads run out to all the circumjacent cities. Mr Haſtings, during his reſidence in India, among other uſeful improvements, cauſed a ſurvey to be made of the roads leading to it from the weſtern frontier of Bahar, and alſo from the ſide of Allahabad: this was done in 1782 and 1783. Nagpour is the reſidence of Moodajee Boonſlah, chief of the eaſtern Mahratta ſtate, and is a city but of modern date; it is extenſive but not populous, meanly built, open and defenceleſs, except a ſmall fortreſs, which is of little ſtrength. The

country

country round is fertile, and extremely well cultivated, interſperſed with hills of moderate height; but the appearance of the country in general, particularly between Bahar and Nagpour, is that of a foreſt thinly planted with villages and towns.

6. *Poonah* is the capital of the weſtern Mahratta empire; it is about 100 miles from Bombay, and 75 from the neareſt ſea coaſt; is meanly built, and not large, quite open and defenceleſs. About 18 miles eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Poonah is a ſtrong fortreſs, named Pooroonder, and is the place of refuge in caſe of an invaſion, where the archives of government are depoſited, and where the principal officers reſide. Whenever an invaſion has happened, the Mahrattas never thought Poonah a place worthy of defence, and have accordingly deſtroyed it with their own hands.

7. *Aurungabad*, the capital of Dowlatabad, is but a modern city. It owes its name to Aurugzebe, who, from a ſmall village, made it the capital of his dominions: afterwards Hydrabad, or Bagnagur, became the capital, which it ſtill continues to be, of the Nizams of the Deccan.

8. *Hydrabad*, or Bagnagur, is the preſent capital of the Nizams of the Deccan, who, ſince the diviſion of their empire, have left the ancient capital, Aurungabad, which indeed was not conveniently ſituated for the ſeat of government, being in a corner of their dominions. About five or ſix miles weſt-north-weſt of Hydrabad, and joined to it by a wall communicating with it, is that celebrated fortreſs Golconda, ſituated on the ſummit of a hill of a conical form, ſaid to be impregnable; however, Aurungzebe conquered the kingdom of Golconda in 1687, and the fortreſs was taken, but not without treachery.

9. *Madras*, or Fort St George, is the principal ſettlement of the Britiſh Eaſt India Company on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula, and is a fortreſs of very great ſtrength, including within it a regular and well built city. Madras was ſettled by the Engliſh about the year 1640, and was hardly defenſible until the deſtruction of Fort St David in 1758. It is now perhaps one of the beſt fortreſſes in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh nation. Madras, in common with all the other European ſettlements on this coaſt, has no port for ſhipping, the coaſt forming nearly a ſtraight line; and it is alſo incommoded with a high and dangerous ſurf.

10. *Seringapatam* is the capital of Myſore, the dominions of Tippoo Saib. It is ſeated on an iſland formed by the river Cauvery, about 300 miles weſt by ſouth of Madras. It has little in it worthy of notice. Myſore lying about 8 miles ſouth of Seringapatam, was formerly the capital. The country round is open and very fruitful, nor is it mountainous.

Hiſtory. The hiſtory of the eaſtern nations in general, until the arrival of the Europeans among them, is involved in the greateſt obſcurity; nor have thoſe who pretend to have inveſtigated their records ever been able to produce a ſingle piece of hiſtory worth the peruſing. The expedition of Alexander the Great firſt gave the Europeans any true knowledge of India; and indeed this was of ſuch a tranſitory nature, that it may be ſaid to have been loſt as ſoon as gained. According to the accounts of that hero's exploits, we underſtand that the country was then filled with nations much better ſkilled in war than thoſe who now poſſeſs it. Some of them he encountered and defeated; but ſuch was the vigorous reſiſtance they made, that ſome of the ancient authors attribute to it the mutiny of his troops, who abſolutely refuſed to follow him any farther into

India. He was obliged therefore to content himſelf with ſailing down the Indus to the ocean; though ſuch was his paſſion for dominion, that he took care to cauſe the people on both ſides of the river own ſubjection to him as he ſailed along. From his time to that of the Mahometan khalifs, the hiſtory of India affords nothing of conſequence. Very extenſive conqueſts in the northern parts of India were made by the generals of the khalif Al Walid, who reigned in the beginning of the eighth century. By them Mahometaniſm was introduced, and has ever ſince continued to be the religion of the moſt renowned Indian princes. About the year 1000 ſome of the northern parts of India ſeem to have been under the dominion of Turkiſh princes; but Mahmud Ebn Sabektekin, ſovereign of a territory called Gazna, bordering on the north-weſt part of India, having overthrown his Turkiſh competitors, invaded India itſelf, carrying off an immenſe plunder, and ſlaughtering the people every where on account of their being idolaters. Thus he founded a very potent empire, called that of Gazna, from which the ſovereign himſelf is known by the name of Mahmud Gazni. This empire was utterly overthrown by Jenghiz Khan in his progreſs weſtward, though not without a very ſtout reſiſtance from the reigning ſovereign Jallallodin. This valiant prince, with only 30,000 men, encountered for a whole day the vaſt multitude of Moguls who followed Jenghiz Khan, amounting to at leaſt 800,000; and, as he had poſted himſelf in ſuch a manner that he could not be ſurrounded, he was not entirely defeated, though he was never able to renew the combat. The Mogul conqueror did not at that time exert himſelf againſt India, but continued his progreſs to the weſt. The empire, however, was now in a weakened ſtate; and ſeveral revolutions took place before the time of Tamerlane, who, in the year 1398, invaded and conquered the whole country, making dreadful maſſacres, and eſtabliſhing his dominion ſo effectually, that it could not be ſhaken. His ſucceſſors, who are ſaid to have poſſeſſed the throne of India ever ſince, enjoying unlimited power over one of the moſt extenſive and wealthy empires in the world, were magnificent even to a proverb; but their ſubjects were not proportionably happy. They committed the care of their provinces to rapacious governors, who oppreſſed and plundered their ſubjects without mercy. Having generally a vaſt number of children by the many women they kept, the empire was by them conſtantly filled with diſcord, blood, and ſlaughter; ſo that by the middle of the 17th century it was ready to fall to pieces. Before this time, however, the Europeans had found out the paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope; and notwithſtanding the ſmallneſs of their number, had the vanity to imagine that they could conquer wherever they came. The Portugueſe, who had the advantage of being the firſt, eſtabliſhed themſelves in many places; but all the romantic valour they poſſeſſed was not able to counterbalance the diſadvantages ariſing from their rapacity and want of prudence. The Indian emperors, therefore, in a ſhort time, had nothing to fear from them, eſpecially as the mutual jealouſy of the European ſtates would always have furniſhed them with allies, had any one of the former attempted to make permanent conqueſts in their dominions. The weakneſs and tyranny of their own government, indeed, was a ſufficient enemy; but, in 1667, Aurengzebe, the youngeſt ſon of the reigning emperor, by dint of treachery, cruelty, and the moſt abominable religious hypocriſy, murdered, or drove into exile all his brethren, after

which he displayed some political abilities in settling his empire on a better foundation than he had found it. He extended his jurisdiction over the whole peninsula, though indeed it must be owned that his dominion was but very slightly owned by the princes who possessed it. He erred, however, in allowing too much authority to the governors of his provinces; though perhaps it was not easily in his power to have prevented this. At any rate, it was productive of the same consequences which had ensued before. A vast empire divided among a set of rapacious governors, who owned allegiance to a weak and indolent sovereign, could not fail of being dissolved, and the nominal head, becoming a mere cypher, was ready to be pulled down at the pleasure of those who called themselves his subjects. Aurengzebe died in 1707, and six years after, the empire was torn by civil contests betwixt his four sons. Mauzoldin, who got the better of the rest, took the name of Jehander Shah, on his obtaining possession of the empire. He did not, however, long enjoy his dignity, being soon after deposed and murdered by his nephew, who assumed the sovereignty. Finding himself curbed by two of his courtiers, who were brothers, and too powerful to be punished openly, the new emperor attempted to get them assassinated; but was himself deposed and strangled, a grand-son of Aurengzebe, then only 17 years of age, being raised to the throne. The young emperor, in a short time, was poisoned by the two brothers, and his eldest brother, Shah Jehan raised to the throne. The Rajahs, provoked at the insolence of these two overgrown courtiers, commenced a war against them, but the latter proved victorious, and Jehan was established on the throne. Dying in 1719, he was succeeded by Mahomet Shah, who, with the assistance of Nizam Al Melek, one of the generals of Aurengzebe, vanquished one of the brothers, and got the other assassinated. The conqueror used his victory with great moderation; for he neither put to death the traitor whom he had vanquished, nor the unfortunate Ibrahim, one of the imperial race, whom the former had taken from prison in order to raise him to the throne. Both of them were committed to prison, and the emperor seized upon the vast riches of *Seyd* (the name of the traitor who had already done so much mischief). Mohammed Shah, finding himself firmly established on the throne, quickly pursued those courses of indolence and debauchery which had ruined almost all his predecessors from the time of Tamerlane. Nizam Al Malek had been made *Soubah*, or viceroy of the Decan, in consequence of the services performed against Seyd, which was now confirmed to him, and he was universally looked upon as the first subject in the empire. Notwithstanding all the honours to which he had been raised, however, he soon became so far forgetful of himself, as to invite Nadir Shah, called otherwise Kouli Khan, to invade the empire. His motives for this have been variously represented. According to some he found that a strong party was formed against him at court; but others are of opinion, that he wished to recommend himself to his sovereign still more than he had done by his former exploits, and imagined, that he should easily repel the attacks of this usurper, thus paving the way to greater dignities for himself than had as yet been conferred upon him. But, whatever were his motives, it is certain that he was disappointed. Nadir Shah prevailed, took the city of Delhi, and carried off an immense treasure, obliging Mohammed also to surrender all the lands to the westward of the rivers Atock and Sind (the Indus), with many other rich and fertile provinces, almost equal in value to all that he had

possessed

poſſeſſed otherwiſe. The treaſure he carried off at this time (1739) was eſtimated in the London Gazette at 231 millions, and the invaſion may be conſidered as the finiſhing ſtroke given to the empire of Indoſtan. The conqueror, however, though he was undoubtedly able to have raiſed himſelf to the throne of Hindooſtan, did not think proper to deprive Mohammed of his dominions, but reinſtated him in his dominions, and even gave him an advice how to govern his empire better. This was of little avail: his ſubjects, now accuſtomed to deſpiſe their ſovereign, revolted every where throughout his dominions. The north-weſt provinces had been ceded to Nadir Shah; but, on his aſſaſſination, (in 1747), Achmet Abdallah, his treaſurer, carried off ſuch a quantity of treaſure, as enabled him to raiſe an army of 50,000 cavalry, with which he marched againſt Delhi. He was oppoſed by prince Ahmed Shah, the eldeſt ſon of the emperor, together with the grand vizir, with an army of 80,000 men; but, notwithſtanding this ſuperiority in number, Abdallah prevailed ſo far, as to erect an independent kingdom, which has the Indus for its boundary. The empire of Hindooſtan was now ſo much reduced, that the Mahrattas had obliged the emperor to become their tributary, and all the ſubordinate princes had begun to aſſert their independency. The moſt violent civil wars took place, the empire was rent with inteſtine commotions, and for many years the people were oppreſſed in the moſt grievous manner.

From this time the affairs of the Mogul empire have declined in ſuch a manner, that there is no probability of its ever regaining its former luſtre. The Britiſh and French, who had at firſt obtained ſettlements only with a view to commerce, began now to interfere in the quarrels of the princes with one another, at the ſame time that their mutual jealouſies were productive of the moſt violent wars betwixt themſelves. It was in the year 1747 that the machinations of the French againſt the Britiſh firſt began. Mr Dupleix, at that time the French commandant, uſed every method in his power to ingratiate himſelf with the natives, to prejudice them againſt the Britiſh, and to induce them to commence hoſtilities againſt them. Thus a war took place in that part of the world, which was not in the leaſt interrupted by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. The French continued to augment their force, both by ſea and land; ſo that by the time that war was again formally declared betwixt the two nations, they were much more than a match for the whole Britiſh power in the eaſt. They had a ſtrong ſquadron under M. D'Ache, with an army of 2000 land forces, commanded by M. de Lally, an officer of conſiderable character, and greater rank than had hitherto been employed in that part of the world. For ſome time they met with a ſucceſs proportionable to their numbers, and, in conjunction with other enemies, threatened to exterminate the Britiſh from that part of the world. The nabob of Bengal having been provoked, by the refuſal of ſome duties which he claimed as his right, and likewiſe by the protection granted at Calcutta to one of his rebellious ſubjects, levied a great army, and, in the year 1756, laid ſiege to that place. The governor of the fort, having declared himſelf a quaker, abandoned the place, as did alſo ſeveral of the principal inhabitants, who ſaved themſelves on board the ſhips in the river. The government now devolved on Mr Holwell, the ſecond in command, who, though abandoned in the manner juſt mentioned, bravely defended himſelf to the laſt extremity; but, being unable to hold out againſt ſuch a vaſt ſuperiority in numbers, was at laſt obliged to ſurrender.

render. The priſoners, to the number of 146, were crowded into a dungeon called the Black Hole, where there was ſcarce room to hold them; and, by reaſon of want of air, only 23 were found alive next morning, and theſe in ſuch an enfeebled ſtate, that it is ſurpriſing how they did not all periſh in conſequence of the fevers they contracted that night; for it was obſervable, that all thoſe who died loſt their ſenſes and became phrenetic; and Mr Holwell himſelf remarks, that he found himſelf in an high putrid fever on his coming out. The nabob was puffed up with his victory, but ſoon found that he had no great reaſon to plume himſelf on the advantage he had gained; for admiral Watſon, in conjunction with colonel Clive, having arrived in the eaſt with a conſiderable force, took and deſtroyed the forts of Angria, a pirate who had long infeſted theſe parts, re-took Calcutta, and reduced the French ſettlement at Chandernagore. Admiral Watſon died of a fever, and was ſucceeded by admiral Pocock, under whom the naval operations were conducted with no leſs courage and ſkill. He defeated M. D'Ache in two engagements, and, had it not been for the miſbehaviour of ſome of his captains, would in all probability have at once deſtroyed the naval power of France in that part of the world. M. Lally was reduced to great difficulties by theſe defeats, and, being entirely deſtitute of money, was obliged to apply to the king of Tanjour. This prince abſolutely refuſed to ſupply his neceſſities, upon which he invaded his territories, and laid ſiege to the capital. Here alſo he was foiled, by the want of proviſions and ammunition, and the ſkill of ſome Britiſh gunners, who enabled the inhabitants to make a better defence than they would otherwiſe have been capable of doing. He was now reduced to ſuch diſtreſs, that he was obliged to ſeize upon a Dutch veſſel, in order to ſupply himſelf with neceſſaries, though this is ſuppoſed to have been done with their own conſent. Thus ſupplied, M. Lally undertook no leſs an exploit than the reduction of Madras; but here he was as unſucceſsful as ever, though it does not appear that his failure was occaſioned by any fault of his, but aroſe entirely from the bad behaviour of his troops, and his total want of ſupport from his native country.

The affairs of the French now went every where to wreck. All hopes of aſſiſtance from the nabob of Bengal had long been cut off, by the deciſive battle of Plaſſey, gained by colonel Clive. The other Indian princes ſhewed no inclination to join them againſt a formidable and victorious enemy. The town and fort of Conjeveram were reduced, and that of Maſulipatam taken by ſtorm; ſo that, by the end of the year 1759, their ſettlements on the coaſt of India were reduced to Pondicherry, and ſome other places of ſmall conſequence; the whole trade on the coaſt of Coromandel, for an extent of more than 800 miles, falling into the hands of the Britiſh. At laſt, a party of about 1200 Britiſh troops being repulſed in an attempt to diſlodge an army of French and Indians, general Lally began to talk in an high ſtrain, and to threaten the ſiege of Tritchinopoly. But this was the laſt appearance of ſucceſs which attended his arms. Colonel Coote, to whom the command of the Britiſh troops was now committed, advanced with great rapidity, and his progreſs could by no means be ſtopped by the utmoſt efforts of the French. Wandewaſh, a ſtrong and important fortreſs, was reduced, Carangoly followed, and general Lally, alarmed at theſe ſucceſſes, called in his detatchments from every quarter, with a deſign to make one laſt effort for the recovery of his loſt honour. His firſt attempt was directed a-

gainſt

gainſt Wandewaſh, which he hoped to reduce before colonel Coote could come to its relief. But here he was attended by his uſual bad fortune. The colonel arrived juſt as the French had made a practicable breach; and as there was a great diſparity of numbers in favour of the French, Lally determined to try the event of a battle. An obſtinate engagement enſued, in which the French were defeated; and by this laſt misfortune their affairs were totally ruined. The defeat indeed appears to have been very complete; the camp, cannon, and all the implements for carrying on the ſiege falling into the hands of the victors; while general Lally, with the remains of the army, was obliged to ſhut himſelf up in Pondicherry. This miſerable reſource did not long avail him. Colonel Coote proceeded with his uſual activity, all the remaining fortreſſes in the hands of the French were quickly reduced. Some ſmall view of retrieving matters ſtill remained from M. D'Ache, who appears to have been an able and experienced commander. But, though ſuperior in the number of ſhips, and much more in that of guns and men, he was unable to contend with the ſuperior ſkill of his antagoniſt admiral Pocock. After a bloody engagement of two hours, he was obliged to take refuge under the cannon of Pondicherry. The Britiſh fleet ſuffered greatly, eight of their ſhips being obliged to ſtand the fire of the whole French fleet, conſiſting of 16 ſail; but, notwithſtanding this diſadvantage, admiral Pocock ſoon got himſelf ready for action again. As Pondicherry was very ſtrongly fortified, the Britiſh commanders did not think proper to make any attempt upon it by ſtorm, but choſe rather to try the effect of a blockade. The beſieged held out with great conſtancy, being always in hopes of relief from their fleet. The uſual conſequences, however, enſued. Their proviſion being exhauſted, they were reduced to feed on the fleſh of camels, elephants, dogs, and cats; and ſo valuable did this kind of food become at laſt, that ſixteen roupees (half a-crown each) were paid for the fleſh of a dog. The only diſtreſs ſuffered by the beſiegers was from ſtorms, which frequently ruined their works; and, at laſt, by a very violent one, the whole fleet was driven out to ſea. Lally inſtantly ſent an expreſs to the French agent in the neutral iſlands for ſome proviſions; but, before any could arrive, the Britiſh fleet returned, and the blockade rendered complete. Lally, however, held out to the laſt extremity, and did not make any propoſal for a ceſſation of arms, till a breach was made in the wall, and only one day's proviſion of any kind remained in the place. Even at the very laſt he refuſed to capitulate, and thus expoſed the city to be given up to the diſcretion of the ſoldiers.

Thus the French power in Hindooſtan was totally broken, and nothing remained to them but a ſmall ſettlement, named Mahie, on the coaſt of Coromandel, which was ſoon after reduced. But, in the mean time, one Mr Law, nephew to him who became ſo famous by the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme, having joined the native princes occaſionally as ſeemed beſt to anſwer his purpoſe, found means, though he commanded only a body of 200 men, to render ſome of them eſſential ſervices, at laſt perſuaded Shah Zadah, the lawful heir to the Mogul throne, to invade Bengal with an army of 80,000 men. But the Britiſh commander, major Carnac, having prevailed on the Nabob to oppoſe his progreſs, with 20,000 black ſoldiers ſupported by only 500 Britiſh, entirely routed this vaſt multitude, taking the Mogul himſelf and Mr Law priſoners.

Thus we may ſay the empire of Hindooſtan was totally overthrown.

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The vaſt extent of country gained by the Britiſh, and their exceſſive ſuperiority over the natives in the art of war, rendered them in a manner the governors of the whole country, and the nabobs were raiſed or depoſed at their pleaſure. The uſurper Abdallah, alſo, who had poſſeſſed himſelf of the north-weſtern parts of the empire, made the moſt cruel invaſions, and in the year 1760 took and almoſt depopulated the city of Delhi, though before that time it was ſuppoſed to contain two millions of inhabitants. At laſt the Mahrattas, who had greatly ſtrengthened themſelves during theſe confuſions, made an attempt to drive out Abdallah, and reſtore the empire of the Hindoos. Thus great part of the ſtrength of Hindooſtan was turned againſt itſelf; the Mahrattas ſupporting the cauſe of the Hindoos, and the Mohammedan princes uniting together for their own defence. The former brought into the field an army of 200,000 men, and the latter 150,000. A moſt obſtinate and bloody battle enſued in the year 1761, in which the Mahrattas were overthrown with incredible ſlaughter, and the power of Abdallah firmly eſtabliſhed. The unhappy emperor of Hindooſtan, however, was now entirely deſtitute of territory, or of any revenue to ſupport him, though a few of the Omrahs, or petty princes, ſtill ſupported him. He was patroniſed for ſome time by Sujah Dowlah, but which ever party got the better, he had nothing to hope. Sujah Dowlah indeed, by quarrelling with the Britiſh, was ſo completely defeated, that he had nothing in his power; but in 1765, lord Clive, who reſtored to Sujah moſt of the dominions which had been taken from him, retained the provinces of Corah and Allahabad as part of an eſtabliſhment for the emperor; obtaining at the ſame time from him a grant of thoſe of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, for the annual rent, or tribute, of 26 lacks of rupees, about L. 260,000 ſterling. Unfortunately, however, the emperor could not accommodate himſelf to his circumſtances; which, though much better than what they had lately been, were far inferior to thoſe of the emperor of Hindooſtan when ſeated on the throne of Delhi. By the treaty made with the Britiſh, he was to reſide at Allahabad, where he could be protected by them; but giving ear to the promiſes of the Mahrattas, he put himſelf entirely into their hands. The conſequence of this was, that the Britiſh reſumed the right to the provinces of Corah and Allahabad, which they inſtantly ceded again to the nabob of Oude, receiving a valuable conſideration in return. The emperor went to Delhi, where, inſtead of the grandeur he expected, he found himſelf obliged to ſubſiſt on a trifling revenue, and to remain a kind of ſtate priſoner.

We ſhall now conclude this hiſtory of Hindooſtan with ſome account of the Britiſh tranſactions in that part of the world ſince the year 1765, when we left them quietly ſettled in the poſſeſſion of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa; not indeed as abſolute ſovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This ſtate of tranquility, however, did not long continue; for in 1767, they found themſelves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the ſovereign of Myſore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and, in the year 1753, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in their ſervice. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Myſore, he depoſed his ſovereign, and uſurped the ſupreme authority under the title of regent. In a ſhort time he extended his dominions on all ſides except the Carnatic, until at laſt his dominions equalled the iſland of Great Britain in extent, with

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a revenue of not leſs than four millions ſterling annually. The diſcords which took place in various parts of Hindooſtan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandize himſelf in ſuch a manner, that his power ſoon became formidable to his neighbours; and in 1767, he found himſelf in danger of being attacked on one ſide by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the Britiſh. The former were bought off with a ſum of money, and the latter were in conſequence obliged to retire. Having ſoon, however, aſſembled all their forces, ſeveral obſtinate engagements took place; and the Britiſh now, for the firſt time, found a ſteady oppoſition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various ſucceſs during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a ſtrong detachment of his army, paſſing by that of the Britiſh, advanced within a little diſtance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly loſt by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a moſt dreadful defeat, almoſt his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the neceſſity of allowing his enemies to deſolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perſeverance and diligence, ſo that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made ſome attempts to get poſſeſſion of the provinces of Corah and ſome others, but were oppoſed by the Britiſh; who, next year, defeated and drove them acroſs the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occaſion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowlah, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promiſed to pay 40 lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but when the money came to be paid, it was under various pretences refuſed; the conſequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was, next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the Britiſh, as well as ſeveral other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced to the weſtward within 25 miles of Agra; north-weſtward to the upper part of the navigable courſe of the Ganges; and ſouth-weſtward to the Jumna river. Next year their territories were augmented by being put in poſſeſſion of Benares, which produced a clear revenue of L. 240,000 annually, at the ſame time that the ſubſidy paid by Azuph the ſon of Sujah Dowlah was augmented. In 1773, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occaſion a brigade, conſiſting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by Britiſh officers, traverſed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the weſtern ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting aſſiſtance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For ſome time he carried every thing before him, and, having the good fortune to defeat, or rather deſtroy a detachment of the Britiſh army under colonel Baillie, it was generaly imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would have ſoon been annihilated. By the happy exertions of Sir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progreſs of this formidable adverſary was now ſtopped, and he ſoon became weary of a war which was attended with incredible expence to himſelf, without any reaſonable proſpect of ſucceſs. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was ſincerely deſirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a concluſion; and his rival Sir Eyre Coote did not

ſurvive

ſurvive him above five months. His ſon, Tippoo Saib, for ſome time ſeemed determined to proſecute the war. An attack was therefore made on his weſtern provinces by the Britiſh under general Matthews; but through the diſagreement of the officers, or ſome miſmanagement on the part of the general himſelf, the detachment was entirely ruined, and thoſe who remained had the misfortune to be reproached for their cruelty, inſomuch, that the officers thought it incumbent upon them to publiſh in their own defence. At laſt Tippoo, finding that the French refuſed to co-operate with him after peace had taken place betwixt their nation and Britain; that the Mahrattas had likewiſe made peace with the Britiſh; and that his revenues could not ſupport ſuch an expenſive war; conſented, though with reluctance, to make peace, which was ſigned at Mangalore in the year 1784. Since that time there has been an uninterrupted tranquillity with regard to the Britiſh affairs in the eaſt; until lately that the reſtleſs diſpoſition of Tippoo has prompted him to make an attack on the nabob of Arcot, an ally of Britain. Here, however, he has met with a ſevere check, being defeated, and himſelf wounded; ſo that it is to be hoped tranquillity will ſoon be reſtored, and that the terror of the Britiſh arms will long preſerve the peace of this extenſive and divided empire.

TABLE I.—AGRA to

	Britiſh Miles.		Britiſh Miles.
Agimere	230	Candahar	942
Allahabad	296	Canoge	127
Amedabad	534	Caſhmere	728
Amednagur	713	Cattack	785
Arcot	1160	Chatterpour	212
Attock	704	Cheitore	300
Aurungabad	633	Corah	184
Bareilly	129	Dacca	990
Beder	740	Delhi *(Capital of Delhi)*	117
Benares	379	Dowlatabad	628
Biſnagur	989	Ellichpour	487
Bombay *by Burhampour*	848	Etayah	71
by Amedabad	858	Fyzabad. *See Oude.*	
Burhampour	508	Goa	1020
Cabul	922	Golconda	790
Calberga	865	Gwalior	80
Calcutta *by Moorſhedabad*	944	Hurdwar	217
by Birboom	839	Hydrabad *by Ellichpour*	806
Calpy	160	*by Nagpour*	835
Cambay	587	Jagarnaut	793

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Joinagur, *or Jaepour*	136	Oude, *or Fyzabad*	287
Lahore	503	Ougein, *by Narwah*	374
Lucknow	202	Patna	544
Madras *by Ellichpour*	1158	Pondicherry	1287
by Nagpour	1187	Poonach	796
Masulipatam	831	Ramgaut	74
Meerta	294	Rantampour	120
Mirzapour	346	Ruttunpour	513
Moorshedabad	826	Sattarah	840
Moultan *by Delhi*	611	Seringapatam	1230
Mundu	420	Sirong	253
Mysore	1238	Sumbulpour	617
Nagpour *by Hussingabad*	548	Surat *by Amedabad*	680
by Chatterpour	514	Tatta, *or Sindy*	887
Napaul	424	Visiapour	825
Narwah	127	Warangole	868

TABLE II.—BENARES to

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Agimere	571	Delhi	495
Allahabad	83	Dowlatabad	742
Amedabad	793	Ellichpour	552
Arcot	1105	Etayah	308
Attock	1083	Furruckabad	295
Aurungabad	740	Fyzabad. *See Oude.*	
Balasore *by Chuta Nagpour*	316	Ganjam	570
Bareilly	345	Ghod, *or Gohud*	336
Baroach	820	Goa	1070
Beder	726	Golconda	750
Bidjigur	56	Gurrah	270
Belsah	416	Gwalior	355
Bombay *by Nagpour*	982	Hurdwar	500
by Burhanpour	950	Hydrabad	751
Bopaltol	449	Jagarnaut	512
Burhanpour *by Sagur*	609	Ionpour	42
Buxar	70	Indore	584
Cabul	1301	Joinagur, *or Jaepour*	515
Calberga. *or Kilberga*	783	Lahore	882
Calcutta *by Moorshedabad*	565	Lucknow	189
by Birboom	450	Madras *by Hydrabad*	1103
Calpy	229	Masulipatam *by Nagpour*	853
Cambay	806	Meerta	636
Candahar	1321	Mindygaut	253
Canoge	259	Mirzapour	20
Cashmere	1107	Monghir	255
Cattack *by Chuta Nagpour*	452	Moorshedabad, *by Birboom*	417
Chatterpour	237	*by Monghir*	477
Cheitore	601	Moultan	990
Chittigong	752	Mundlah	306
Chunargur	17	Mysore	1165
Corah	195	Nagpour	430
Dacca	601	Napaul	

	British Miles.
Narwah	356
Oude	130
Ougein	554
Patna *by Buxar*	155
by Daoadnagar	165
Pawangur	765
Pondicherry	1203
Poonah *by Nagpour*	916
by Burhanpour	897
Ramgaut	419
Rewah	126
Rotasgur	81
Ruttunpour	275
Sagur	341
Sattarah	942
Seringapatam	1157
Sindy, *or Tatta*	1210
Sirong	289
Sumbulpour	375
Surat *by Sirong and Ougein*	863
by Burhanpour	869
Tanjore *by Nagpour*	1273
Tritchinopoly	1277
Visagapatam	758
Visiapour	876

TABLE III.—BOMBAY to

	British Miles.
Agimere *by Amedabad*	650
Allahabad *by Nagpour*	977
Amedabad	321
Amednagur *by Poonah*	181
Anjenga	900
Arcot	722
Aurungabad *by Callian*	260
by Poonah	284
Baroach	221
Basseen	227
Beder	426
Bednore	452
Bisnagure	398
Bopaltel	516
Burhanpour *by Poonah*	386
by Chandore	340
Calberga	386
Calcutta *by Poonah*	1301
Callian	32
Calpy	821
Cambay	281
Canoge	889
Cashmere	1233
Cattack	1034
Chatterpour	472
Cheitore	547
Cochin	780
Corah	853
Damaun	107
Delhi *by Amedabad and Agimere*	880
by Burhanpour	965
Dowlatabad	258
Fyzabad. *See Oude.*	
Goa	292
Golconda	475
Gwalior	768
Husingabad Gaut	500
Hydrabad	480
Jagarnaut	1052
Jansi	728
Jesselmere	680
Indore *by Pawangur*	456
Joinagur, *or Jaepour*	740
Lahore	1010
Lucknow	923
Madras	758
Mangalore	518
Masulipatam	686
Meerta	610
Mirzapour	932
Moorshedabad	1259
Moultan *by Jesselmere*	920
Mundu	454
Mysore	630
Nagpour *by Poonah*	577
by Callian	552
Narwah	721
Onore	398
Oude *by Burhanpour and Sirong*	1013
Ougein *by Powangur*	486
by Burhanpour	504
Patna *by Rewah*	1145
Pawangur	286
Pondicherry	805
Poonah	98
Ruttunpour	772
Saler Mouler	182
Sattarah	146
Seringapatam	662
Sindy, *or Tatta*	741
Sirong	195
Sumbulpour	826

Surat

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Surat	177	Viſiapour	234
Tellicherry	615	Vizrabuy, *or Vizarabie*	48

TABLE IV.—CALCUTTA to

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Adoni	1030	Chittigong	317
Agimere *by Moorſhedabad*	1136	Chunargur *by M.*	574
by Birboom	1030	*by B.*	469
Allahabad *by M.*	649	Cicacole	490
by B.	544	Comorin Cape	1470
Amedabad *by Ougein*	1234	Condavir, *or Guntoor*	791
Amednagur	1119	Corah *by M.*	760
Anjenga	1577	*by B.*	655
Aracan	475	Dacca	177
Arcot	1070	Delhi *by M.*	1061
Aſſam, capital of	660	*by B.*	956
Attock	1648	Dalamcotta	344
Ava	1510	Dowlatabad	1020
Aurungabad	1022	Ellichpour	844
Bahar	297	Ellore	719
Balaſore	141	Etayah *by M.*	
Baroach *by Nagpour*	1220	*by B.*	755
Bareilly *by M.*	910	Furruckabad *by M.*	860
by B.	805	*by B.*	755
Baſſeen *by Poonah*	1317	Ganjam	369
Beder	980	Gangpour	393
Bednore	1290	Ghod, or Gohud *by M.*	
Bilſah, *by Mundlah*	867	*by B.*	783
Biſnagur	1120	Goa	1300
Bopaltol, *by Mirzapour*	929	Golconda	907
by Mundlah	892	Guntoor. *See Condavir*	
Burhanpour *by Nagpour*	978	Gwalior *by M.*	910
Buxar *by M.*	485	*by B.*	805
by B.	408	Hurdwar *by M.*	1080
Cubal *by M.*	1866	*by B.*	975
by B.	1761	Hunſigabad Gaut *by Nagpour*	909
Calberga *by the Circars*	1018	Hydrabad *by Nagpour*	1043
Calpy *by M.*	804	*by the Circars*	902
by B.	699	Jagarnaut	311
Cambay *by Nagpour*	1273	Indore *by Mundlah*	1030
by Mundlah and Ougein	1253	Joinagur or Jaepour *by M.*	1080
Candahar, *by Moorſhedabad*	1886	*by B.*	975
by Birboom	1781	Lahore *by M.*	1447
Canoge *by M.*	824	*by B.*	1342
by B.	719	Laſſa	850
Caſhmere, capital of, *by M.*	1672	Lucknow *by M.*	754
by B.	1567	*by B.*	649
Cattack	251	Madras	1030
Chatterpour *by M.*	803	Madura	1336
by B.	698	Maſulipatam	764
Cheitore *by M.*	1168	Meerta *by M.*	1197
by B.	1063	*by B.*	1092

	British Miels.
Mindygaut *by M.*	818
Mirzapour *by M.*	598
by B.	493
Monghir *by M.*	301
by B.	275
Moorſhedabad	118
Moultan *by M.*	1565
by B.	1450
Mundilla	624
Myſore	1178
Nagpour Great	
by Ratanpour	722
by Cattack	733
Nagpour Little	280
Napaul	591
Narwah *by M.*	922
by B.	817
by B.	713
Ongole	829
Oude *by Moorſhedabad and Benares*	695
by Birboom and Benares	590
by Moorſhedabad and Azimgur	639
by Birboom and Azimgur	562
Ougein *by Patna*	1066
by Nagpour	1062
by Mundlah	997
Patna *by M.*	400
by B.	340
Pawangur *by Ougein*	1197
Pondicherry	1130
Poonah *by Nagpour*	1208
by the Circars	1289
Ramgaut *by M.*	984
by B.	879
Rajamundry	665
Ruttunpour *by Little Nagpour*	493
by Cattack	545
Segur *by Mundlah*	806
Sattarah *by Nagpour*	1232
Seringapatam	1170
Silhet	325
Sindy *or Tatta*	1602
Sirong *by Benares*	849
Sumbulpour *by Cattack*	441
by Little Nagpour	438
Surat *by Benares and Ougein*	1309
by Nagpour	1238
Tanjor	1235
Tritchinopoly	1238
Viſigapatam	557
Viſiapour *by the Circars*	1183
by Aurungabad	1216

TABLE V.—DELHI to

	British Miles.
Agimere	230
Allahabad	412
Amedabad	610
Amednagur	830
Aracan	1420
Arcot	1277
Aſſam	1318
Attock	587
Aurungabad	750
Bahar	642
Bareilly	142
Beder	857
Biſnagur	1106
Burhanpour	625
Cabul	805
Calberga	982
Calpy	277
Cambay	665
Candahar	825
Canoge	214
Caſhmere *by Lahore*	611
Cattack	902
Cheitore	327
Comorin Cape	1728
Corah	301
Dacca	1107
Dowlatabad	744
Ellichpour	604
Etayah	140
Fyzabad, *See Oude*	
Ghizni, *or Gazna*	749
Goa	1158
Golconda	958
Gwalior	197
Hurdwar	117
Huſſun-Abdaul	550
Hydrabad *by Ellichpour*	923
by Nagpour	952
Jagarnaut	910
Jionpour	456
Joinagur *or Jaepour*	

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Joinagur *or Jaepour*	156	Oude	364
Jammoo	379	Ougein	435
Lahore	386	Panniput	72
Lucknow	279	Patna	661
Madras *by Ellichpour*	1275	Pishour *or Pieshore*	634
Ditto *by Nagpour*	1304	Pondicherry	1400
Ditto *by Burhanpour*	1357	Poonah	913
Masulipatam	1084	Ramgaut	77
Meerta	295	Ruttunpour	633
Mindygaut	220	Sattarah	963
Mirzapour	463	Seringapatam	1321
Moorshedabad	943	Sindy *or Tatta*	810
Moultan	494	Sirhind	195
Mysore	1330	Sirong	370
Mundu	481	Sumbulpour	730
Nagpour	631	Surat	756
Napaul	500	Visiapour	916
Narwah	244	Warangole	985

TABLE VI.—HYDRABAD to

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Adoni	175	Condapilly	142
Agimere	800	Corah	728
Allahabad	703	Cuddapa	130
Amedabad	661	Dalmacherry	278
Amednagur	335	Dowlatabad	303
Arcot	354	Ellichpour	319
Aurungabad	295	Ellore	183
Balasore	295	Fyzabad. *See Oude*	
Bancapour (Sanore)	267	Ganjam	533
Bangalore	352	Goa	416
Baroach *or Broach*	549	Golconda	5
Beder	78	Gooty	178
Bednore	413	Guntoor. *See Condavir*	
Bilsah	506	Gurramconda	275
Bisnagur	264	Gurry Mundlah	476
Bopaltol	495	Gwalior	726
Burhanpour *by Jaffierabad*	380	Hussingabad Gaut	444
by Aurungabad	417	Jaffierabad	503
Calbirga	116	Jagarnaut	591
Calpay	715	Jansi	684
Cambay	620	Indore	550
Canoul	127	Ingeram	272
Cattack	651	Joinagur *or Jaepour*	829
Chatterpour	620	Lahore	1309
Cheitore	713	Lucknow	794
Chetteldroog	322	Madras	352
Cicacole	412	Madura	613
Combam *or Commum*	145	Mahur *or Maor*	173
Condanore	156	Mangalare	470
Condavir	131	Masulipatam	203
		Meerta	800

Mirzapour

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Mirzapour	722	Ruttunpour	551
Moorshedbad	1020	Sagur	536
Mundu	498	Sattarah	366
Mysore	414	Seringapatam	406
Nagpour	321	Sindy *or Tatta*	553
Narwah	679	Sirrong	1074
Neermul	144	Sirrippy	317
Omrautty	293	Sollapour	144
Ongole	164	Surat	575
Oude	811	Tanjore	522
Ougein *by Jaffierabad*	544	Timerycotta	71
Patna *by Nagpour and Revah*	914	Tinevelly	709
Pondicherry	452	Tritchinopoly	526
Poonah	387	Visagapatam	355
Rachour	91	Visiapour	269
Rajamundry	237	Warangole	62
Raolconda	144	Yanam	272
Roydroog	252		

TABLE VII.—LUCKNOW to

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Agimere	427	Dowlatabad	728
Allahabad	128	Dynapour	304
Amedabad	770	Etayah	144
Arcot	1147	Furruckabad	111
Aurungabad	696	Fyzabad. *See Oude*	
Bahar	388	Ghod *or Gohud*	188
Bahraitch	73	Goa	1114
Bareilly	156	Golconda	794
Baroach	761	Goorackpour	170
Belgram	70	Gwalior	211
Bilsah	367	Hurdwar	311
Bidzigur	234	Jagarnaut	660
Bopaltol	398	Jansi	190
Burhanpour	537	Jionpour	147
Buxar	232	Indore	522
Cabul	1084	Joinagur *or Jacpour*	338
Callinger *or Kaulinger*	149	Kairabad	31
Calpy	98	Lahore	639
Canoge	75	Mahomdy	92
Cashmere	890	Mausulipatam *by Nagpour*	897
Cattack	641	Meerta	493
Cawnpour	49	Mindygaut	69
Chanderee	270	Mirzapour	182
Chatterpour	172	Monghir	416
Cheitore	503	Moorshedabad	597
Chittigong	941	Moultan	742
Chunar	197	Mundlah	337
Corah	67	Nagpour	474
Currah	93	Narwah	258
Dacca	790	Oude *or Fyzabad*	85

Ougein

	British Miles
Ougein	495
Patna	316
Pondicherry	1247
Poonah	882
Ramgaut	201
Rewah	182
Rotasgur	270
Ruttunpour	392
Sagur	300
Sattarah	970
Seringapatam	1201
Sindy *or Tatta*	3089
Sirong	318
Sultanpour	92
Sumbulpour	497
Visiapour	920

TABLE VIII.—MADRAS to

	British Miles.
Adoni	310
Agimere	1152
Allahabad	1055
Amedabad	1049
Anjenga	506
Arcot	73
Aurungabad	647
Balasore	689
Bancapour (Sanore)	416
Bandarmalanka	358
Bangalore	215
Bangalore	215
Baroach	947
Beder	430
Bednore	445
Bisnagur	386
Burhanpour *by Aurungabad*	769
by Jaffierabad	782
Cabal	2080
Calberga	422
Cambay	998
Canoge	1141
Canoul	279
Cashmere	1886
Cattack	779
Chatterpour	975
Cheitore	1065
Chitteldroog	335
Cicacole	540
Coimbetour	300
Combam *or Commum*	214
Comorin Cape (Aremeny Gate)	440
Condapilly	306
Condavir	276
Conjeveram	46
Corah	1080
Cuddapa	153
Dalmacherry	115
Dindigul	275
Dowlatabad	655
Ellichpour	671
Ellore	310
Ganjam	661
Goa	575
Golconda	358
Gooty *or Gutti*	209
Guntoor. *See Condavir.*	
Gurramconda	153
Gwalior	1078
Jagarnaut	719
Indore	902
Ingeram	399
Lahore	1661
Madura *by Tanjore*	307
Mangalore	440
Masulipatam	292
Mirzapour	1074
Moorshedabad	1148
Mundu	850
Nagpour	673
Negapatam	183
Nellore	120
Oude	1163
Ougein	896
Pallamcottah	401
Patna *by Nagpour*	1266
Pondicherry	100
Poonah	660
Rachore	323
Rajamundry	365
Raolconda	382
Ruttunpour	903
Sattarah	626
Seringapatam	290
Siccacollam	267
Sindy *or Tatta*	1467
Sirong	905
Sirripy	281

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Surat	903	Tutacorin	394
Tanfore	205	Vellore	88
Timerycotta	278	Vifagapatam	483
Trankebar	165	Vifiapour	534
Travancore	464	Warangole	414
Tritchinopoly	208	Yanam	400

TABLE IX.—NAGPOUR to

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Adoni	496	Gurrah	160
Allahabad	382	Gwalior *by Huffingabad*	480
Amedabad	576	Huffingabad Gaut	187
Amednagur	403	Jagarnaut	500
Arcot	675	Indore	371
Aurungabad	300	Joinagur *or Jaepour*	540
Balafore	592	Mahur *or Maor*	167
Bareilly	576	Maſulipatam	423
Beder	302	Meerta	596
Bednore *by Hydrabad*	734	Mirzapour	401
Bilſah	249	Moorſhedabad *by Chuta Nagpour*	695
Biſnagur	569	Mundilla	155
Boad	347	Nagpour Little	433
Bopaltol	238	Narnalla	164
Burhanpour	256	Narwah *by Huffingabad*	421
Burwa	383	Neermul	177
Calberga	358	Omrautty	113
Calpy	394	Oude *or Fyzabad*	496
Canoge	486	Ougein *by Bopaltol*	340
Cattack	482	Panniput	703
Chanda	90	Patna *by Ruttunpour*	577
Chanderee	302	*by Rewah*	593
Chatterpour	302	Pondicherry	773
Cheitore	510	Poonah	486
Chetra *or Chittrah*	463	Rachore	412
Chunargur	420	Ramgaut	588
Cicacole	400	Ramgur *in Bahar*	483
Condapilly	370	Raypour	200
Condavir *or Guntoor*	385	Rewah	304
Coomtah	93	Rotaſgur	440
Corah	407	Ruttunpour	220
Cuddapa	551	Sagur	215
Dowlatabad	305	Sattarah	512
Ellichpour	122	Seringapatam	727
Ellore	377	Sirong *by Huffingabad*	295
Gangpour	330	Sonepour *or Jonepour*	300
Ganjam *by Boad and Gumfoar*	488	Sumbulpour	292
Gawile *or Gyalgur*	137	Surat	516
Goa	640	Surgoojah	318
Golconda	320	Tanjore	843
Gooty *or Gutti*	500	Tritchinopoly	847
Gumfoar	434	Vellore	670

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Viſagapatam	394	Warangole	258
Viſiapour	448		

TABLE X.—OUGEIN to

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Agimere	256	Janſi	298
Allahabad	480	Jeſſelmere	365
Amedabad	275	Indore	30
Amednagur	365	Joinagur *or Jaepour*	285
Arcot	905	Joudypour	260
Aurungabad	287	Kotta	150
Baroach	266	Meerta	256
Bareilly	503	Mirzapour	526
Baſſeen	448	Moorſhedabad *by Gurry Mundlah*	983
Bilſah	140	*by Patna*	1007
Biſnagur	645	Mundu	46
Bopaltol	112	Mundilla	363
Burhanpour	164	Naderber *or Noondabar*	203
Calpy	382	Nagore	305
Cambay	270	Nagpour Little	780
Canoge	464	Narwah direct	254
Cattack *by Nagpour*	822	*by Sirong*	291
Chanderee	242	Oudipour	135
Chatterpour	320	Patna	726
Cheitore	169	Pondicherry	998
Corah	426	Poonah *by Burhanpour*	452
Dowlatabad	280	Powangur	200
Ellichpour	237	Ramgaut	488
Etayah	402	Rantampour	260
Furruckabad	468	Ruttunpour	508
Fyzabad *or Oude*	583	Sagur	212
Ghod *or Gohud*	356	Sattarah	502
Goa *by Poonah*	697	Seringapatam	886
Golconda	539	Sirong	165
Gwalior	336	Sumbulpour	608
Hindia	116	Surat	309
Huſſingabad Gaut	153	Viſiapour	474
Jalore	220		

TABLE XI.—POONAH to

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Adoni	360	Bancapour *(Sanore)*	268
Agimere	670	Bangalore	521
Allahabad *by Sirong*	853	Bareilly	910
Amedabad	389	Baroach	287
Amednagur	83	Baſſeen	114
Arcot	624	Beder	310
Aurungabad	186	Bednore	382
Balaſore	1078	Bilſah	496

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Bisnagur	300	Meerta	644
Bopaltol	463	Mindygaut	844
Burhanpour	288	Mirzapour *by Sirong*	900
Calberga	271	*by Nagpour*	887
Callian	91	Moorshedabad *by Nagpour*	1181
Calpy	768	Mundilla	641
Cambay	338	Mundu	406
Canoge	842	Naderbar	230
Canoul	387	Nagpour Little	919
Cattack *by Nagpour*	968	Narwah	669
Chanderee	620	Omrautty	373
Chatterpour	695	Oude *or Fyzabad*	947
Cheitore	570	Panniput	985
Chitteldroog	411	Patna *by Sirong*	1090
Condavir *or Guntoor*	528	*by Nagpour*	1063
Corah	812	Pawangur	352
Dalmacherry	548	Pondicherry	707
Dowlatabad	184	Poorundar	18
Ellichpour	380	Rachore	357
Ellore	570	Ramgaut	870
Etayah	779	Ruttunpour	706
Furruckabad	847	Rydroog	386
Ghod *or Gohud*	726	Sagur	556
Goa	245	Sattarah	50
Golconda	382	Seringapatam	525
Gooty *or Gutti*	392	Sirong	543
Gwalior	716	Sumbulpour	778
Hussingabad Gaut	450	Surat	243
Jagarnaut *by Nagpour*	986	Tanjore	762
Jansi	674	Tatta *or Sindy*	807
Indore	450	Tritchinopoly	730
Joinagur *or Jaepour*	737	Vellore	616
Mangalore	455	Visagapatam	742
Masulipatam	590	Visiapour	136
Mahur *or Maor*	355	Visrabuy	112

TABLE XII.—SERINGAPATAM to

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Adoni	243	Canoul	279
Amednagur	541	Changamah	178
Anjenga	325	Chitteldroog	115
Arcot	217	Cochin	214
Aurungabad	599	Coimbetour	122
Bancapour *(Sanore)*	231	Combam *or Commum*	291
Bangalore	74	Comorin Cape	380
Beder	432	Condanore	250
Bednore	187	Condapilly	444
Bisnagur	260	Condavir *or Guntoor*	414
Burhanpour	722	Cuddapa	220
Calicut	129	Dalmacherry	202
Calberga	390	Dindigul	193

Dowlatabad

	British Miles.		British Miles.
Dowlatabad	606	Pondicherry	260
Ellichpour	695	Rachore	315
Ellore	448	Raolconda	322
Goa	335	Roydroog	168
Golconda	408	Sattarah	477
Gooty *or Gutti*	228	Sirripy	89
Gurramconda	172	Sollapour	302
Jagarnaut	860	Tanjore	237
Madura	240	Tinevelly. *See Palamcotta*	
Mangalore	162	Tellicherry	128
Maſulipatam	430	Timerycotta	363
Myſore	8	Trankebar	295
Negapatam	296	Travancore	344
Ongole	338	Tritchinopoly	205
Onore	244	Vellore	202
Palamcotta	317	Viſiapour	405
Palicaudcherry	131		

PERSIA.

Extent, Situation, and Boundaries. THIS celebrated empire is not leſs than 1300 miles in length and 1100 in breadth, lying between 25 and 44 degrees of north latitude, and between 44 and 66 of eaſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Caſpian Sea; on the north-weſt by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan; on the ſouth by the Indian Ocean, the Perſian Gulf, and that of Ormus; on the weſt by Arabia and Turkey in Aſia; on the eaſt by India; and on the north-eaſt by the river Oxus.

Diviſions. The modern empire of Perſia is divided into the following provinces. 1. Choraſan. including Herat and Eſterabad, being part of the ancient Hyrcania. 2. Sableſtan, including Candahor, and the ancient Bactriana. 3. Sigiſtan, the ancient Drangiana. 4. Makeran. 5. Kerman, the ancient Gedroſia. 6. Farſiſtan, the ancient Perſia properly ſo called. 7. Chuſiſtan, anciently Suſiana. 8. Irac Agemi, once the celebrated kingdom of Parthia. 9. Aderbijan, the ancient Media. 10. Gangea. 11. Daghiſtan: the two laſt being part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis. 12. Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania. 13. Shirvan. 14. Mazanderan.

Name. There have been various conjectures concerning the origin of the name of Perſia; ſome deriving it from Perſeus, the ſon of Jupiter and Danae; others from the word Paras, which ſignifies a horſemen; as both Perſians and Parthians have been in all ages celebrated for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

Air. This is very different in different parts of the empire. Toward the

the mountains of Caucaſus and Daghiſtan, or Ararat, as well as thoſe near the Caſpian Sea, it is very cold; theſe mountains being covered with ſnow all the year round. In the middle parts it is mild and ſerene, and towards the ſouth extremely hot, and infeſted with theſe noxious blaſts mentioned under the head of Arabia. To avoid the pernicious effects of theſe, the people wear thick turbans upon their heads.

Soil and Produce. Towards the Caſpian Sea and Tartary, the ſoil is but indifferent, though with proper cultivation it might undoubtedly produce plenty of corn and fruits; but, to the ſouthward of Mount Taurus, ſcarce any country in the world can excel it in fertility; nor indeed can we eaſily find one that will equal it. The European fruits and flowers all grow here in the utmoſt perfection; and the roſes about Iſpahan have the moſt delightful fragrance, yielding by diſtillation a water which is highly valued, and makes a gainful article in trade. By reaſon of the ignorance of the people in gardening, however, the fruits of Perſia are far from being ſo valuable as they might be, were proper care taken of them. The gum called aſſafætida, well known in medicine, is a native of this country. It is the inſpiſſated juice of a certain plant, from which it flows out as a gum. There are two kinds, white and black, but the former is by far the moſt valuable, and is much uſed by the people of the country in their ſauces. Silk is produced in this country in great abundance; and the gulf of Baſſora formerly ſupplied Europe and great part of Aſia with fine pearls. Beſides the above-mentioned vegetable productions, a number of our medicinal ſimples, particularly ſena and rhubarb, are brought from this country.

Mountains. The principal mountains of Perſia are thoſe of Caucaſus and Ararat already mentioned, with that called Taurus, all of which run out into branches interſecting the empire in many parts.

Rivers. There are but few rivers of any conſequence in this country. The moſt conſiderable are the Cyrus, now the Kur; and the Araxes, now the Aras. Both of theſe take their riſe among the mountains of Ararat. The others are only rivulets, which have their ſource among the hills, but ſeldom are of ſuch a ſize as to be navigable even by boats. The Oxus, Euphrates, and Tigris, which form the boundaries of the country, can ſcarcely be reckoned among the rivers of Perſia. Water indeed is generally ſcarce throughout this empire, ſo that in many places they are obliged to collect and preſerve it in reſervoirs, conveying it to the place where it is wanted by aqueducts, canals, &c,

Metallic and Mineral Productions. This empire produces plenty of iron, lead, and copper. Turquoiſes are found in the province of Choraſan, and other parts produce antimony, ſaltpetre, and ſulphur. There are likewiſe quarries of red, black, and white marble, found near the city of Tauris.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Cuſtoms. The Perſians in general are handſome and well made, their complexions being fair in the northern parts, but ſomewhat ſwarthy towards the ſouth. The old men ſhave their heads entirely, but the younger claſs leave a lock on each ſide, and allow the hair of their beard to grow up to their temples. Such as devote themſelves to religion ſhow their piety by the length of their beards. They are extremely fond of keeping their heads warm; for which reaſon they never uncover themſelves in token of reſpect to their ſuperiors. They wear thick turbans, which are a very expenſive part of their dreſs, many of them being no leſs than 25 pounds value; and few under nine

or

or ten. In other reſpects their dreſs is ſimple; conſiſting of a callicoe ſhirt with a veſt over it, reaching below the knee, and girt with a ſaſh, having a looſe garment above all which deſcends ſomewhat lower. They are fond of rich and magnificent dreſſes; ſo that their clothes are generally made of the moſt expenſive materials, conſiſting of the fineſt furs, cotton, ſilk, &c. richly adorned with gold and ſilver. They wear linen trowſers, a kind of looſe boots on their legs, ſlippers on their feet, and have always a ſaſh with a dagger in it; their dreſs in other reſpects being looſe and open. The dreſs of the women is not very different; and they take much pains to ſpoil their complexions by paint and waſhes of various kinds. The Perſians, as has already been obſerved, are well ſkilled in the management of the horſe, and are very expenſive in their equipages. Being generally Mahometans, they uſe many ablutions, which indeed are otherwiſe neceſſary, as they never change their linen. They make uſe of neither knives nor forks at their meals, but pull their meat to pieces with their fingers. Like the Turks they ſit croſs-legged, but will accommodate Europeans who happen to be in their company with ſtools to ſit upon; and are generally hoſpitable and agreeable to ſtrangers. They are temperate in their eating and drinking; nor do they go to great exceſs in the uſe of opium, though they ſometimes chew it like the Turks. Tobacco ſeems to be their greateſt favourite, which they ſmoke through a tube filled with water, that they may have the vapour cool in their mouths; and they have even been known to quit their country rather than not enjoy their tobacco, when the prince has forbidden the uſe of it. They do not allow printing, ſo that their books are all manuſcripts, and vaſt numbers of people are employed in writing them. Their method of writing is from right to left like the Hebrews. They are extremely jealous of their women; though the men may marry for any determined time, as well as for life. Hence many of thoſe, who have occaſion to reſide for any time in a city, apply to the cadi or judge; who, for a certain ſum, allows them their choice of a certain number of young women, for whoſe behaviour he becomes ſurety; and it is ſaid there has never been an inſtance known in which one of theſe wives behaved diſhoneſtly. The diverſions moſt in vogue among theſe people are hunting, hawking, feats of arms and horſemanſhip, archery, fights of wild beaſts, the performances of jugglers, rope-dancers, &c. They are likewiſe fond of muſic and converſation; and will even play at games of chance, though theſe are prohibited by their religion. The number of inhabitants cannot be eſtimated; though, from the vaſt armies raiſed by the Perſian monarchs in former times, we muſt conclude that the population is immenſe.

Religion. The prevailing religion throughout this empire is Mahometaniſm, but of a ſect different from that of the Turks; for the Perſians look upon Ali to have been the true repreſentative of Mahomet. Beſides the Mahometans, however, there are ſtill many of the fire-worſhippers, called *Gaurs*, or *Gebres;* who pretend to be followers of the ancient Zoroaſter. Theſe have the ſeat of their worſhip at a combuſtible ground, which burns in a ſurpriſing manner, at about ten miles diſtant from the city of Baku in the northern part of the empire. There are here ſome old temples, in one of which they pretend to have preſerved what they call the "ſacred flame of the univerſal fire." This riſes through a hollow cane ſtruck into the ground, and burns at top, as a ſtream of inflammable

mable air, or any kind of bituminous vapour paſſing through the tube would do. The Gaurs are hated and perſecuted by the Mahometans, being tolerated in very few places. They were all driven out of the empire by Shah Abbas the Great; but they have ſtill found means to keep their ground, and are ſaid to be very numerous. The Perſians in general, however, are not ſanguine in their Mahometan principles; and there are many ſects among them whoſe religious principles are evidently founded upon Chriſtianity: there are alſo many profeſſed Chriſtians of various ſects, as Armenians, Georgians, &c.

Language. Towards the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian Sea, the common people ſpeak the Turkiſh language; but the Arabic was introduced during the time of the khalifs, and has now intermixed itſelf greatly with the true Perſic. The pure Arabic is ſpoken by people of quality, and many of their books are written in that language. It is only in the ſouthern parts, and about Iſpahan the capital, that the pure Perſic is ſpoken: throughout many provinces the language is a barbarous mixture of Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages.

Learning and Learned Men. Perſia is now much degenerated in this as well as other reſpects. Formerly their poets were greatly eſteemed all over the eaſt; and one of them, named Ferduſi, compoſed an hiſtory of the empire, in a ſeries of epic poems, which is held in great eſtimation by many Europeans verſed in oriental literature. The works of *Jami*, another poet, who flouriſhed about the middle of the 15th century, are likewiſe greatly eſteemed; and there is a copy of them in 22 volumes in the library of Oxford. In the ſame place is a manuſcript containing the lives of 135 of the beſt Perſian poets. Formerly the Perſians were celebrated for their ſkill in aſtronomy; and Ulug Beg, a deſcendant of the great Tamerlane, is well known to the learned world for his extenſive knowledge in that ſcience; but now their aſtronomical ſkill has degenerated into an heap of ſuperſtitious and aſtrological abſurdities, concerning the poſition and aſpects of the heavenly bodies. Their favourite ſcience at preſent is ſaid to be that of medicine; and the phyſicians are expert and ſkilful: but even this ſcience is perverted and injured by the aſtrologers, it being judged neceſſary to wait for the lucky hour or minute to give the patient his doſe; by which means they frequently die before the proper period arrives. Their ſurgeons are very ignorant; their whole practice extending little farther than letting of blood. The Perſians in general, however, are healthy, the plague being but ſeldom known to viſit the country; and they are ſaid likewiſe to be exempt from the apoplexy, gout, conſumption, as well as ſeveral other diſeaſes equally fatal.

Antiquities and Curioſities. This empire, notwithſtanding the many ravages it has undergone, ſtill exhibits ſome remains of its former grandeur. Nineteen of the pillars which formerly adorned the palace of Perſepolis are yet entire. They are about 15 feet in height, and conſtructed of excellent Parian marble. Neither theſe, however, nor any of the ruins to be met with throughout the empire of Perſia, have that beauty and elegance of architecture for which the Greek and Roman buildings were remarkable. At Iſpahan is a pillar 60 feet high, and compoſed entirely of the ſkulls of beaſts. It was erected by Shah Abbas the Great, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion. That monarch, in the heat of his reſentment, had vowed to erect ſuch a column with the heads of his enemies; but after the war was over, he conſented to accept of the heads

of

of beaſts; and pardoned the rebels, on condition that each of them ſhould bring him a head. The tombs of the Perſian monarchs are very magnificent works, being cut out of a ſolid rock, and adorned with many ſculptures. The principal natural curioſity in Perſia is the inflammable ground already mentioned, near Baku. In the neighbourhood of the ſame place alſo are ſome ſprings of the natural rock oil called Naphtha. This is pellucid and colourleſs, highly inflammable and volatile; and it is moſt probably owing to the emanations of its vapour from the ground that the abovementioned ſoil owes its inflammable property. At Gombroon there are ſome medicinal baths, which are ſaid to perform very extraordinary cures.

Cities, Public Edifices, &c. The empire of Perſia is not now renowned as formerly for the magnificence of its cities and public buildings. Iſpahan the capital is ſaid to be twelve miles in circumference, and to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but it was ſo often depopulated by tyrants, that in the year 1741, according to the report of Mr Hanway, not above 5000 of its houſes were inhabited. The royal palace, with the adjacent buildings and gardens, is ſaid to be about three miles in circumference. There are here 150 moſques, 1800 caravanſeras, with a vaſt number of baths, public ſquares, &c. with canals ornamented with trees; the city being ſupplied with water by a river named Zenderhend, on which it is ſituated. Moſt of the ſtreets, however, are narrow and crooked. The houſes in this capital, as well as throughout Perſia, are but meanly built. They ſeldom conſiſt of more than one ſtory; the walls built of brick, and very thick, with flat roofs for walking upon; and this laſt conſtruction affords the inhabitants one of their principal amuſements, as they generally ſpend the ſummer evenings in company with one another on the tops of their houſes. So ignorant are the Perſians of any kind of conveniency in their buildings, that few of the houſes have even a chimney, or any other contrivance for letting out the ſmoke, than a hole in the middle of the roof. The houſes of the principal people have an arched hall, with which all the other rooms communicate, the kitchen and office-houſes being built at ſome diſtance. They have little furniture beſides carpets, which ſerve them both for chairs and beds.

Schiras, which lies about 200 miles to the ſouthward of Aſtracan, may be accounted the ſecond city in Perſia; though, like Iſpahan, it is but thinly inhabited; not above 4000 of its houſes being occupied at preſent. It is very much celebrated for its wine, and the neighbouring country is in ſuch an exquiſite ſtate of cultivation as to reſemble a fine garden for many miles round. It has a great number of moſques and other public buildings, but the ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient. Here is a college for the ſtudy of oriental learning. The cities of Ormus and Gombroon were formerly places of great conſequence on account of their commerce; and there are ſtill factories of the Britiſh and other Europeans at Gombroon, who trade with caravans coming from Turkey and other parts of Aſia.

The principal public buildings in Perſia are the moſques and bagnios. The former are of a ſquare figure, and generally built of ſtone, with a ſquare court before the principal entry, paved with white marble, and having low galleries around it, whoſe roofs are ſupported by white marble pillars. In theſe galleries the Mahometans perform their ablutions before they go into the moſque, for the purpoſes of devotion.

Each

Each of the moſques has ſix towers, with ſmall ſpires called *Minarets*, and three little open galleries one above another, from which a certain officer calls the people to prayers. The roofs of the moſques are generally covered with lead, and adorned with gilding, &c. Moſt of them have a place of entertainment for ſtrangers during three days; and in the neighbourhood is alſo the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, &c.

The baths are ſometimes ſquare, but more generally circular, and conſtructed of marble, or ſome other kind of ſtone well poliſhed. There are three rooms in each of theſe buildings; one for undreſſing and dreſſing; another for the water to be uſed in the bath; and the third for the bath itſelf; all of them paved with black and white marble. The men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon, after which they are ſucceeded by the women. This operation is ſuppoſed to conduce greatly to health, but is very unpleaſant to Europeans, not on account of the mere bathing, but of the diſcipline they are otherwiſe obliged to undergo; for here the waiter not only rubs the patient very ſtrongly, but ſtretches and handles his limbs in ſuch a manner as if he meant to diſlocate them.

Commerce and Manufactures. As the Perſians have little or no ſhipping of their own, their foreign commerce is all carried on in veſſels belonging to other nations; and the perpetual wars and confuſions which have almoſt always deſolated the empire have in a great meaſure ruined its trade. The Britiſh trade with them at Gombroon by the gulf of Ormus was of ſome conſequence; and another ſcheme of commerce was projected through Ruſſia; but hitherto this has not anſwered the expectations of either party.

In ſome ſpecies of manufactures, particularly thoſe of ſilk, woollen, mohair, leather, and carpets, the Perſians are ſuperior to any other nation in the world. Their colours, as well as their gold and ſilver lace, are ſuperior to thoſe of Europe, and their embroideries, furniture for horſes, &c. are likewiſe inimitable. In other manufactures, however, they are deficient. Their carpenters are very indifferent; owing, as is ſuppoſed, to the ſcarcity of wood all over the empire. Their jewellers and goldſmiths are alſo clumſy workmen, and they have not the method of making locks; neither, though they can manufacture window glaſs, have they attained the art of making looking-glaſſes. The exceſſive deſpotiſm of their government indeed ſtands greatly in the way of every improvement, here as well as in other countries.

Conſtitution and Government. No prince is more abſolute than the emperor of Perſia, neither indeed have any monarchs in the world given greater inſtances of their abſolute authority over the lives of their ſubjects than they. The moſt ſhocking barbarities are inflicted at the mere word of the emperor, or even any one of his favourites. For this an apology was made by that inhuman tyrant Shah Abbas the Great, that the Perſians were by nature ſo extremely inſenſible, that they could not be governed without the moſt dreadful puniſhments. The laws of Perſia exclude females from the throne; and blindneſs is another diſqualification; for which reaſon it is common for a brother who aſcends the throne to put out the eyes of all the reſt of his male relations; nay, it has often been known, that a father has put out the eyes of his eldeſt ſon, to prefer the younger who was his favourite. The emperor has no counſellors except thoſe favourites who have art enough to engage his atten-

tion by their ſervices or flatteries; and their ſituation is certainly very precarious, as the leaſt deviation from his will, or perhaps a ſecret calumny, will undoubtedly coſt them their lives. There are no degrees of nobility in Perſia.

Royal Titles and Arms. The Perſian monarch is called Shah, or the diſpoſer of kingdoms; and he likewiſe takes thoſe of Khan and Sultan, which are borrowed from the Tartars. He never ſigns his name to any public act. All of theſe conclude, "this act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys." His arms are a lion couchant looking at the riſing ſun.

Revenues. By reaſon of the exceſſive deſpotiſm of the Perſian monarch, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe that his revenues are immenſe, eſpecially as he claims a legal right to a third part of all the ſilk, cotton, fruits, corn, and cattle throughout the empire. Here even water is taxed when let into fields and gardens; and all foreigners not of the Mahometan perſuaſion are obliged to pay a ducat each. Certain lands are aſſigned to the governors of provinces for the maintenance of their troops and attendants; the expences of the royal houſehold and court being defrayed by the crown-lands.

Military Strength. In former times the Perſian armies, like thoſe of the other Aſiatic nations, conſiſted moſtly of cavalry; but, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, a conſiderable number of infantry have been joined with them. They had no ſhips of war till the time of Khouli Khan, and ſince his time no attempts ſeem to have been made to repair or keep them up.

Hiſtory. Very little is known concerning this empire before the time of Cyrus, excepting that the Medes and Perſians were then ſubject to the Babylonians. This celebrated conqueror, according to Xenophon the Greek hiſtorian, was the ſon of Cambyſes king of Media, and the daughter of Aſtyages king of Perſia. In his time the king of Babylon's ſon having exaſperated ſome of his principal Median nobility, a war commenced, which terminated in the entire deſtruction of the Babyloniſh empire. The malcontents were headed by Cyaxares uncle to Cyrus, who employed the latter as his general. In this war Cyrus had to encounter not only the Babylonians, but the united forces of all the nations of Aſia Minor; who, either as allies or ſubjects, had joined the king of Babylon. Along with theſe alſo were joined 120,000 Egyptians; the whole making up an army of 420,000 men, while that of Cyrus did not exceed 196,000. The two armies engaged near Thymbra in an extenſive plain; where, both having room to act, Crœſus, king of Lydia, who commanded the allied army, made uſe of his ſuperiority in numbers to ſurround the Perſians. Notwithſtanding this, the allies were routed with great ſlaughter, Sardis the capital of Lydia, and Crœſus himſelf were taken, and no farther obſtacle remained from the nations of Aſia Minor. This is the firſt pitched battle we find particularly deſcribed by any profane hiſtorian.

After the battle of Thymbra, Cyrus marched directly againſt Babylon, which he reduced in the manner related in the introduction, and having ſettled the affairs of his empire in peace, he extended his dominion over all the countries from the Indus to the Egean Sea, making the Euxine and Caſpian Seas his boundaries to the north, and Ethiopia and Arabia to the ſouth. His ſon Cambyſes proved a cruel and fooliſh tyrant; however, he made a partial conqueſt of Egypt, but loſt an army of 50,000 men in the deſarts of Africa, all of whom were buried by the

moving ſands, as they proceeded with an intention to deſtroy the temple of Jupiter Ammon. In an expedition againſt the Ethiopians, in which he headed the army in perſon, he had very near periſhed with famine, and vaſt numbers of his people actually did ſo. Under Cambyſes therefore the Perſian empire may be ſaid to have declined; but it revived under Darius Hyſtaſpes, who aſcended the throne about 522 B. C. His reign is famous for the reduction of the Babylonians, who had revolted, and the conqueſt of India, but his proſperity was ſeverely checked by an unfortunate expedition againſt Scythia, and another againſt Greece. His ſucceſſor Xerxes was ſtill more unfortunate; loſing in an expedition againſt Greece the greateſt army recorded in hiſtory. His only exploit was to reduce and oppreſs the Egyptians ſtill more than before; but, after his misfortune juſt mentioned, he became weary of all martial expeditions, tyrannized over his ſubjects, and was by them murdered in 464 B. C. Under his ſucceſſor Artaxerxes Longimanus, the Ahaſuerus of ſcripture, the affairs of the empire went on tolerably well; and the Egyptians, who had revolted, were again reduced to obedience; but after his death internal diſſenſions firſt, and then the invaſions of the Greeks, threatened to overthrow the whole fabric. The moſt dangerous rebellion was that of Cyrus the Younger againſt his brother Artaxerxes Mnemon. He had been entruſted by his father with the command of all the provinces of Aſia Minor, and thus was enabled to collect an army of 100,000 men, which with 13,000 Greek mercenaries, was ſufficient to have put him in poſſeſſion of the crown of Perſia. The matter was decided at a place called Cunaxa, in the province of Babylon, where Cyrus, through his exceſſive impetuoſity in a ſingle combat with his brother, loſt at once hopes of the kingdom and his life. The Aſiatics who ſerved him were defeated, but the Greeks were invincible; and not only made their way to their own country, in ſpite of the utmoſt efforts of the enemy, but ſhewed themſelves formidable enemies as they paſſed along. In this retreat they were commanded by Xenophon, who brought 10,000 of them ſafe into Greece; and this retreat is much celebrated in hiſtory as an extraordinary exploit in the military way.

The extreme imbecillity of the Perſians, when compared with the Greeks, became now ſo apparent, that the Lacedæmonians ſeem to have projected a plan of conquering the whole empire. The pretence for this war was, that the Greek cities in Aſia were oppreſſed by the Perſians; but it was carried on with ſuch exceſſive animoſity, and reaſonable terms of peace ſo frequently rejected, that it evidently appeared there was ſome other deſign than the reſtoration of liberty to theſe cities. Artaxerxes, finding that he could obtain peace upon no terms, was at laſt adviſed to bribe the other Grecian ſtates to enter into a combination againſt the Lacedæmonians, which was done ſo effectually, that Ageſilaus their king was obliged to abandon his conqueſts, and return to his own country. But in the mean time, the Perſians having fitted out a powerful fleet, the command of which was given to Conon an Athenian, were enabled not only to cope with the Spartans at ſea, but to give them an entire defeat, in which 50 of their ſhips were taken; and, not content with this, the admiral ſoon after made a deſcent on the coaſts of Laconia itſelf, ravaging and plundering all the maritime coaſts.

By theſe misfortunes, the Spartans were obliged not only to abandon all thoughts of conqueſt, but to conclude a peace on very diſadvantageous terms; and Artaxerxes obtained a ſuperiority over the Greeks,

which

which it would have been happy for the empire if his ſucceſſors had been careful to maintain. After freeing himſelf from theſe dangerous enemies, he attacked and reduced the iſland of Cyprus; though he was obliged to allow the king a ſmall territory there, which he continued to enjoy as his tributary. He was unfortunate, however, in an expedition againſt the Caduſians and Egyptians, whom he found it impoſſible to reduce.

Ochus, who ſucceeded Artaxerxes Mnemon, proved a moſt cruel and bloody tyrant; but nevertheleſs ſhewed himſelf a man of ſome ſkill in military affairs. He made war on the Sidonians, and reduced them to ſuch deſpair, that they burnt themſelves in their houſes to the number of 40,000. He then undertook an expedition againſt the Egyptians, whom he reduced to the moſt abject ſlavery, not only diſmantling their cities and fortreſſes, but plundering their temples, carrying off their records, and deſtroying their ſacred animals. For this ſacrilege he was murdered by one Bagoas an Egyptian eunuch, whom he had taken into high favour. The aſſaſſin, not content with putting an end to his life, another body to be buried inſtead of that of his maſter, gave his fleſh to be devoured by cats, and made handles to ſwords of his bones.

Bagoas having thus attained in fact to the ſupreme power, took upon him to raiſe and pull down ſovereigns as he thought proper. He firſt raiſed to the throne Aries, the late king's youngeſt ſon, but ſoon after poiſoned him, and preferred Darius Codomanus. Him he ſoon deſigned to have removed in the ſame manner as he had done Aries; but Darius being on his guard, obliged him to drink the poiſon he himſelf had prepared. Thus he eſtabliſhed himſelf on the throne as far as ſecurity from internal enemies could do ſo; but this was ſcarce done when his dominions were invaded and conquered by Alexander the Great. The rapidity of this monarch's conqueſts was unequalled; his armies were victorious in every battle they fought, and ſucceſsful in every ſiege they undertook. Three great battles at Granicus, Iſſus, and Arbela, decided the fate of the Perſian empire. The laſt put him in poſſeſſion of Perſepolis, the capital, where he ſullied his conqueſts by burning the palace, plundering the town, and committing innumerable acts of cruelty. Darius had ſtill an army of 30,000 foot, among whom were 4000 Greeks, who had continued faithful to him notwithſtanding his misfortunes. With theſe he fled towards Media, but was murdered by his own ſubjects, and the whole empire became ſubject to Alexander. On the diviſion of his empire Perſia fell to the lot of Seleucus Nicator, and was held by him and his ſucceſſors on the throne of Syria to the time of Antiochus Theus, about 250 years before Chriſt. In his time, the Parthians who inhabited the country now called Eyrac Agemi, being provoked by the oppreſſion of their governor, revolted under one Arſaces, who ſtrengthened himſelf in ſuch a manner that the Syrian monarchs could never get the better of him. His ſucceſſors conquered not only Perſia but many other countries of the eaſt, extending their dominions farther than ever Alexander had done. The Parthians in ſhort appear to have been one of the moſt warlike nations of antiquity, and effectually ſet bounds to the extenſion of the Roman empire on the eaſt. Their frequent wars with them, however, proved at laſt fatal to the empire of the Parthians; for in the time of the emperor Macrinus, having an engage with the Romans, which laſted two days completely, ſo many were killed, that the Perſians took an opportunity of revolting. Another dreadful battle enſued, which laſted three days; and after this, the Parthians,

unable to make any farther reſiſtance, were obliged to become vaſſals to the Perſians, after having maintained their independence 475 years.

The reſtorer of the Perſian empire at this time was named Artaxerxes, or Artaxares, whoſe firſt ſtep was to demand from the Romans a ceſſion of all the provinces of Aſia Minor, which he ſaid belonged of right to him, as having been in the poſſeſſion of his anceſtors. The conſequence of this was an immediate war, which became in a manner continual, and at laſt weakened both empires ſo much, that the Saracens were enabled entirely to overthrow that of Perſia, and greatly to reduce the power of the Conſtantinopolitan, or eaſtern Roman empire. On the decline of the Saracen empire Perſia became a prey to various uſurpers, till the time of Jenghiz Khan, by whom it was conquered, and continued ſubject to his officers as a province of his empire till the year 1253, when it once more became the ſeat of a mighty empire, under Hulaku the Mogul. Under him and his ſucceſſors the empire of Perſia continued to be very extenſive, and was united under one head till the beginning of the 14th century, when it was divided among a great many petty princes. All theſe being reduced by Tamerlane, the Perſian empire once more revived, but continued united only under him and his ſon Shah Rukh. On the deceaſe of the latter it became a prey to petty tyrants as before, till the beginning of the 16th century, when it was conquered by one Iſhmael Sofi, ſaid to have been a deſcendant in a direct line from Ali the ſon-in-law of Mahomet. By the year 1510 he had reduced the city of Bagdad, and was making great progreſs weſtward, when he received ſuch a defeat from the Turks, as effectually put a ſtop to his conqueſts on that ſide. Shah Abbas the Great, who aſcended the throne in 1584, found his empire in a very miſerable ſituation, from the depredations of the Turks and Tartars, who had ſeized on ſome of the fineſt provinces. Having defeated the latter, he fixed his reſidence at Iſpahan, the preſent capital, and then turned his arms againſt the Turks, whom he likewiſe overcame, and recovered the dominions they had ſeized He next attempted to promote commerce and civilize his ſubjects; but all the great actions of this monarch were ſullied by his abominable cruelties. In 1622 he took the iſland of Ormus from the Portugueſe, who had kept it ever ſince the year 1507; but this conqueſt was accompliſhed by means of ſome Britiſh ſhips. He died in 1628, at the age of 70. His ſucceſſors were remarkable only for their cruelties and debaucheries, the conſequence of which was a revolution in 1716, when Shah Huſſeyn, the reigning prince was dethroned by the Aſghans, a people inhabiting the country between Perſia and India, who revolted under the conduct of one Mereweis. The princes of this race enjoyed the ſovereignty only 16 years, when Aſhraff, the poſſeſſor of the throne at that time, was depoſed by one of his officers. On this Tahamaſp, otherwiſe called prince Thamas, the only ſurvivor of the family of Abbas, aſſembling an army, invited into his ſervice Nadir Khan, who had obtained great reputation on account of his valour and conduct. He was the ſon of a Perſian nobleman on the frontiers of Uſbec Tartary; and his uncle, who was his guardian, keeping him out of the poſſeſſion of his eſtate, he aſſociated himſelf with the banditti, and robbed the caravans. By degrees his followers increaſed to the number of 500, and Nadir became the terror of all that country, eſpecially of his uncle who withheld his eſtate from him. The latter therefore attempted to make peace with him, and for this purpoſe invited him to an entertainment; but

but Nadir cauſed him to be murdered, and all the people to be turned out of the caſtle. Having thus obtained his inheritance, he gradually became more powerful, and at laſt got the command of the Perſian army from prince Thamas, as has already been related. In this ſtation he ſoon overcame and put to death the uſurper Aſhraff, and, a little time after, his lawful ſovereign prince Thamas alſo; uſurping the empire under the title of Nadir Shah, or king Nadir. The other title by which he is diſtinguiſhed, viz. *Thamas Kouli Khan*, ſignifies the ſlave of Thamas, and was given him before his acceſſion to the ſovereignty. He next laid ſiege to Candahar, a city ſtill poſſeſſed by the ſon of Mereweis; and while he remained before this place, received an invitation from one of the parties which at that time diſtracted the empire of the Great Mogul. This invitation was inſtantly accepted; the Mogul was betrayed into the hands of the Perſians, and Nadir Shah became maſter of Delhi. As his chief motive to this expediton had been the expectation of immenſe wealth, he took the readieſt means to attain it, viz. by ſummoning all the viceroys and governors of provinces to attend him with what treaſure they could procure, and that under pain of the ſevereſt tortures. Thus he amaſſed the prodigious ſum of 230 millions, after which he prepared for his departure, reinſtating, however, the Mogul in his ſovereignty, and even giving him his advice how to govern his empire in ſuch a manner as to avoid diſaſters of the like kind in time to come. He afterwards undertook an expedition againſt Uſbec Tartary, where he proved ſucceſsful, but was unfortunate in his attempt on the Tartars of Daghiſtan, where he loſt the greateſt part of his army through the difficulties he met with in his march. In his wars with the Turks he was once more ſucceſsful, defeating them in ſeveral engagements, but was twice obliged to abandon the ſiege of Bagdad. At laſt, attempting to overturn the eſtabliſhed religion of the country, and behaving with ſuch cruelty and abſurdity as gave reaſon to believe that his brain was affected, he was aſſaſſinated by his own relations in the year 1747. After his death a violent conteſt for the crown took place, which was not ended till the year 1763, when one Kerim Khan got the better of all his competitors, and obtained the crown of Perſia. Since that time the tranſactions in this part of the world have been very much unknown, though it is to be hoped that tranquility has ſince taken place of thoſe horrid ſcenes of bloodſhed and devaſtation, which ſo long depopulated the Perſian empire.

THIBET.

THIS country, commonly ſuppoſed to include Bootan, is very much unknown to Europeans. It is ſaid to be bounded on the north by Tartary; on the ſouth by Hindooſtan; on the weſt by Uſbec Tartary; and on the eaſt by China. It is extremely mountainous, and the flat country towards the foot of theſe mountains is looked upon to be one of the moſt unhealthy in the eaſt, partly from its being at all times wet and

and ſwampy, and partly from the reflection of the ſun's rays from the mountains, which renders the air in theſe low grounds exceſſively hot. It was lately viſited by Mr Saunders, ſurgeon at Boglepoor in Bengal, who has given a very particular account of the vegetable and mineral productions of the country. An account of theſe has been publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1789. From his relation, it appears that the country abounds in wood, having ſeveral ſpecies of trees peculiar to itſelf; but much grows upon the inacceſſible parts of the mountains, in ſuch a manner as to be totally uſeleſs. The cinnamon tree, cypreſs, elder, holly, birch, aſpen, firs, and a variety of others too tedious to mention, are alſo to be met with, with a variety of flowers, ſome of them peculiar to the country, and others common to it with Europe. The fir tree, according to our author's account, is the only one which can be applied to any uſeful purpoſe. The largeſt he had an opportunity of ſeeing was from eight to ten feet in circumference; and even from thoſe which are of the ſmalleſt ſize, tar, turpentine, pitch, and roſin might be obtained in any quantity; though ſo little do the natives attend to their intereſt in this reſpect, that they are ſupplied with thoſe articles from Bengal. There is here a tree which is made uſe of for poiſoning their arrows. Our author had not an opportunity of ſeeing it; but, according to the deſcription given him, it grows to the height of three or four feet, with a hollow ſtalk. The juice is inſpiſſated to a kind of paſte, and put upon the arrow; but though it is very acrid and inflammatory, and thus capable of making a bad or neglected wound mortal, our author is of opinion that it poſſeſſes no ſpecific property as a poiſon. From the bark of another tree, which likewiſe eſcaped the reſearches of Mr Saunders, they make their writing paper.

Among the mountains of Thibet the air is exceſſively cold and piercing, paſſing over a large ſandy deſart and ſnowy mountains. Thus it has all the avidity for moiſture which has been remarked in the hot winds of Arabia and the ſouthern deſarts, though deprived of its heat. By expoſure to this wind mahogany boxes and furniture, which had withſtood the climate of Bengal for many years, were warped, and became full of fiſſures; and it is ſaid that it occaſion the loſs of the fore-teeth in ſuch as are not ſheltered from its influence. The hills in Thibet have ſtrong marks of containing valuable minerals. Gold is found in ſmall particles in the ſand of their rivers. Sometimes there are found large maſſes, lumps, and irregular veins of it, and our author has ſeen in the maſs an half formed irregular precious ſtone. There are likewiſe mines of lead, copper, cinnabar, in Thibet properly ſo called, but iron is more common in Bootan.

From this country is brought the borax, ſo much uſed in ſeveral arts, and whoſe origin was ſo long a matter of inquiry. It is produced from a lake conſiderably to the northward of Tiſhoolumboo, encompaſſed on all ſides by rocky hills, without any brooks or rivulets near it. The water is ſupplied by ſprings, which are ſaltiſh to the taſte, and the borax is found in great maſſes in the ſhallow parts of the lake, and from the greater depths they bring up rock ſalt. The lake itſelf is 20 miles in circumference; and, being in a very cold ſituation, is frozen over a great part of the year, ſo that thoſe who make it their buſineſs to collect this commodity are obliged to give over their work in the month of October.

The inhabitants of Thibet have but an indifferent character, and are charged

charged with an infamous cuſtom of allowing ſeveral huſbands to one woman, to which it is no objection that ſome of them are of the ſame family, or even brothers. In excuſe for this, they ſay that there is a ſcarcity of women, more males than females being born throughout the country. This accounts very well for the frequency of the venereal diſeaſe among them; which, Mr Saunders tells us, rages with more violence, and makes a more rapid progreſs here than in any country which he has had acceſs to obſerve; but he accounts for it from the groſſneſs of their food, and inattention to cleanlineſs. They uſe a particular preparation of mercury for the cure. Another diſeaſe they have in common with the inhabitants of the Alps, and that is a glandular ſwelling in the throat, which ſometimes grows to the ſize of a perſon's head, and it has never been known to be removed by any courſe of medicine; though our author thinks it may ſometimes be checked by mercury. The ſmall-pox too, frequently commit very deſtructive ravages in this country, as they generally do among all barbarous nations.

The moſt remarkable particular, however, relating to this country is their worſhip of a man who has the title of the *Grand Lama*, or *Delai Lama*. He reſides on a mountain called *Poutala*, near the capital Tiſhoolumboo, in one of the fineſt pagods, or temples. Here he is placed upon a ſort of altar, with his legs acroſs, upon a large and magnificent cuſhion, where he receives the adoration, not only of the people of the country, but of a vaſt multitude of ſtrangers; for, as we have already had occaſion to obſerve, this religion is diffuſed over a great part of Tartary. The lama himſelf ſeems to be the moſt miſerable of all human beings, as he is condemned for life to aſſume the character of the Supreme Deity for which he is not only utterly unfit, but which muſt be to the laſt degree painful. Thus he is obliged to live in perpetual ſolitude, without being ſeen, without ſpeaking, or ſcarce ever moving out of his place. No diſtinction is made among thoſe who approach him. He never returns a ſalute, nor ever gets off his ſeat, but puts his hand upon the head of his infatuated adorers, who thus believe that they obtain the remiſſion of their ſins by this means. When he dies, the prieſts chooſe ſome other whom they put in his place, and either pretend that the lama has renewed his age, or that his ſpirit has tranſmigrated into the perſon of the other whom they have ſet up.

ASIATIC ISLANDS.

THOUGH among the iſlands belonging to this quarter of the world we might properly enumerate many of theſe lately diſcovered, particularly that very large one of New Holland; yet, as by our plan it is propoſed to give an account of the new geographical diſcoveries under a ſeparate article, we ſhall here content ourſelves with deſcribing the moſt

moſt remarkable of thoſe mentioned by former geographers as belonging to the continent of Aſia. Theſe are,

The Japan Iſlands lie conſiderably to the northward, and altogether form an empire, by no means either contemptible in magnitude or ſtrength. They extend from the 25th to the 41ſt degree of north latitude; and from 126 to 147 degrees of eaſt longitude. The ſoil and productions are ſaid to be ſimilar to thoſe of China, and the inhabitants to underſtand agriculture ſo well, that the hills are cultivated to the very top. Gold is alſo ſaid to be ſo plentiful among them, that ſome of their temples are covered with it. With all theſe advantages, however, they have other properties perhaps capable of over balancing them. The ſea-coaſts are rocky and difficult of acceſs, and the climate is very cold in winter. They are likewiſe ſubject to violent ſtorms of wind, thunder, lightning, earthquakes, and volcanoes, which laſt ſometimes burn very furiouſly. The people in general have a yellowiſh colour, though, ſome of them, particularly the women, are white; the hair univerſally black, and their features reſemble thoſe of the Tartars and Chineſe. Formerly the Portugueſe eſtabliſhed themſelves in this country; but on their prieſts attempting to overturn the government, they were all turned out; and ſince that time no perſon profeſſing Chriſtianity has been allowed to reſide in Japan. The Dutch are the only Europeans who trade with them, and even they are watched with ſuch care, that little or nothing concerning the ſtate of the country can be known to them. It is even ſaid, that theſe merchants, for the ſake of the gain ariſing from their commerce, are contented to renounce the profeſſion of Chriſtianity, and to join with the Japaneſe in the groſſeſt ſuperſtitions. The commodities imported by the Dutch into Japan are ſugars, ſpices, manufactured goods, hides, and deer ſkins; which laſt articles they purchaſe for money at Siam. The exports conſiſt of copper in cheſts weighing 120 pounds each, and of which they bring about 9000 annually. Beſides this, they deal in camphor to the amount of 25 or 30,000 pounds weight annually; and on this trade they are ſuppoſed to make 40 or 45 *per cent.* The capital of the Japan empire is Jeddo, in 36 degrees north latitude; and 131 eaſt longitude. The inhabitants are very ingenious, and manufacture that fine black varniſh called Japan. As to further particulars relating to theſe iſlands, the total want of communication betwixt them and the Europeans, renders it impoſſible to ſay any thing with certainty. The Dutch pay no duty to the emperor of Japan; but inſtead of it make him an annual preſent of cloth, chintz, cotton ſtuffs, and toys.

2. *The Ladrone Iſlands* are about 12 in number, lying in 14 degrees north latitude; and about 140 eaſt longitude. They are but very little known, and the inhabitants are remarkable for their thieviſh diſpoſition, as well as their ignorance. When firſt diſcovered by the Europeans, ſome of them were even ignorant of the uſe of fire. The iſland of Tinian, where lord Anſon found ſuch agreeable refreſhments to his people, is one of the Ladrone iſlands; but latter travellers have by no means concurred in the character he gave of it.

3. *Formoſa* lies to the eaſtward of China, to which empire it is now ſubject. It is a fine, large, and fruitful iſland, having a chain of mountains running through its middle from north to ſouth, The people reſemble the Chineſe in their manners and cuſtoms.

4. *Hainan* is a large iſland likewiſe belonging to China, about twelve miles

miles distant from Canton. It is not less than 200 miles long, and 160 broad. The maritime parts, and those most capable of cultivation, are possessed by the Chinese, while the original inhabitants have retired towards the middle of the island, which is both more barren and unwholesome than the others.

5. *The Philippine islands* are not fewer than 1100 in number; and by their situation are capable of carrying on a trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with the Asiatic islands and continents. The principa island is called Manilla, or Luconia, and is about 400 miles long and 200 broad. The fertility of the soil is so great that, if a slip of an orange or lemon tree is planted here, it will carry fruit the same year. There is here a particular kind of tree which supplies the people with water; and there is likewise a kind of cane, which when cut, affords a good draught of wholesome water. It grows among the mountains where water is most wanted. There is here a vast variety of plants and flowers, many of those of Europe thriving as well as in their native countries. There is plenty of venison and game of all kinds, as well as of domestic animals. There are also buffaloes, and a particular species of large monkeys. Here also are found the birds nests which dissolve into a jelly, so much esteemed by European epicures. The inhabitants are composed of a great number of different nations, and trade with the western parts of America by means of two large ships from Accapulco, whose owners are said to make 400 *per cent* profit. These ships are always very richly laden, and the capture of them is a favourite object with the British, in case of a war with Spain. These islands were discovered by Magellan, and were added to the Spanish dominions in the reign of Philip II. The capital of the island of Luconia, and of all the Philippines, is named Manilla, and was taken in the year 1762 by Colonel Draper; but though the place was taken by storm, and consequently might have been severely treated according to the laws of war, the British commander allowed the archbishop, who was at the same time viceroy, to ransom it. The sum stipulated was about a million Sterling; but the agreement was afterwards disowned both by the viceroy and the court of Spain, so that the greatest part of it was never paid. Should the Spaniards, however, persist in their hostilities against Britain on the frivolous ground on which they have at present thought proper to commence them, there is little doubt but the Manilla ransom will soon be paid with interest.

The rest of the Philippine islands are governed by princes of their own, whom they call Sultans; and the sovereign of Mindanoa, the next island in bigness to Luconia, professes the Mahometan religion. All of them, like Luconia, abound with the choicest productions of nature, so that the inhabitants enjoy the necessaries and luxuries of life in the utmost profusion; but they are subject to all the dreadful phenomena of earthquakes, volcanoes, and violent thunder and lightning; being besides pestered with venemous animals, and having also several vegetables of so poisonous a nature, that they kill almost instantaneously those who have the misfortune to swallow any part of them.

6. The *Moluccas*, *Spice*, or *Clove Islands*, are five in number, lying so close, that they are all in sight of each other, within 4 degrees of south, and two of north latitude; and about 126 degrees of east longitude. They produce no kind of grain, so that the inhabitants make a kind of bread of sago. Their commodities are cloves, mace, and nut-

megs, which the Dutch monopolize with ſuch care, that they deſtroy all the ſupernumerary plants, leſt the ſpices produced by them ſhould be ſold to other nations. The names of the iſlands are Bachian, Motyr, Machian, Ternate, and Tydor. Of theſe Ternate is the largeſt; though even this is no more than 30 miles in circumference. Here the Dutch have a fort named Victoria, and another in Machian, called Fort Orange.

7. The *Banda*, or *Nutmeg Iſlands*, are likewiſe ſubject to the Dutch. They produce the nutmeg covered with mace; though this would alſo grow upon ſome of thoſe in the neighbourhood. We are informed by natural hiſtorians, that wild pigeons ſwallow the ſpices whole, and void them in the ſame ſtate without being deprived of their vegetative quality; for which reaſon the Dutch deſtroy as many of theſe birds as they can. The nutmeg harveſt is in the months of June and Auguſt. The names of the iſlands are Lentor, Poleron, Roſinging, Pooloway, and Goneſi: they are ſituated between four and five degrees of ſouth latiude; and between 127 and 129 of eaſt longitude.

7. *Amboina*, properly ſpeaking, is one of the Moluccas, and, by its ſituation, commands the whole group. It is about 70 miles in circumference, ſituated in the Archipelago of St Lazarus, between 3 and 4 degrees ſouth latitude, and 127 eaſt longitude. It was poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe the firſt of any European nation; and, after their expulſion a trade was carried on from thence by the Engliſh and Dutch; but in the year 1622, the latter conſpired againſt the Engliſh, whom they murdered, after having firſt cruelly tortured them; thus engroſſing to themſelves the whole trade here, as well as from Banda, an iſland 140 miles eaſt by ſouth of Amboina. The puſillanimous rulers of England at that time took no revenge for ſuch a groſs inſult. Since that period Amboina has remained in the hands of the Dutch, and is defended by a fort garriſoned with 7 or 800 men, beſides ſeveral other ſmaller ones; affording alſo protection to all the clove plantations.

8. *Celebes, or Macaſſar*, lies under the equator, between the Spice iſlands and Borneo, and is of very conſiderable extent; being not leſs than 500 miles long, and 250 broad. Its climate, though very hot, is tempered by the periodical rains, and breezes from the north. Its chief product is pepper and opium; but beſides theſe, a number of poiſonous herbs grow in the iſland, which the natives make uſe of for the deſtruction of thoſe who offend them. There are three kings in the internal parts of the iſland, the chief of whom has his reſidence in the town of Macaſſar. This, as well as moſt of the other Oriental iſlands, is ſo full of venomous reptiles, that the people live in houſes built on large poſts, to which they aſcend by ladders, pulling them up after them in the night-time for their ſecurity. There is here a port called *Jampoden*, which is ſaid to be the moſt capacious of any in that part of the world. From this the people carry on a great trade with China, and are ſaid to be hoſpitable and faithful in their dealings, if not provoked.

9. *Gilolo* and *Ceram* are two ſpice iſlands, the former lying under the equator, the latter in three degrees ſouth latitude; both of which the Dutch have fortified, and will ſink any ſhips that attempt to trade in theſe ſeas.

10. *Borneo*, the largeſt iſland in the world next to New Holland, is one of that cluſter called the *Sunda Iſlands*, lying between 8 degrees north, and 4 ſouth latitude; and between 108 degrees and 119 eaſt longitude. It is about 800 miles long, and 700 broad, having the equator running almoſt

almoſt through the middle of it. The coaſt is inhabited by Mahommedans, who have driven the original inhabitants into the internal parts. Theſe are ſaid to be a very barbarous and brutiſh race, living among the mountains, or in marſhes, with which the inland parts abound, upon floats. Inthis country is found the Ouran-Outang, a large kind of ape, whoſe internal ſtructure, as well as external appearance, is ſaid to reſemble that of the human race, more than any other brute creature. Many have been of opinion that this creature has been originally produced by an intercourſe betwixt the human ſpecies and the brutes; nay, ſome have been ſo abſurd as to imagine, that the Ouran-Outang is no other than man in his original ſtate; and that by experience and ſociety he has civilized himſelf into what we ſee juſt now. The chief port of Borneo is called *Benjar-Maſſeen*, near the ſouth promontory of the iſland, and a conſiderable trade is carried on from it with many different nations. The products of the iſland are gold, precious ſtones, camphor, cotton, rice, and the fruits uſual in the tropical climates.

II. *Sumatra*, an other of the Sunda iſlands, has Borneo on the eaſt, the ſtraits of Sunda, which ſeparate it from Java, on the ſouth-eaſt; and like Borneo is divided nearly by the equator. It is not leſs than 1000 miles long, though not above 100 in breadth; and is ſo rich in gold, that it is by many ſuppoſed, with ſome probability, to have been the Ophir mentioned in ſcripture. Mr Marſden, indeed, in his hiſtory of the iſland, diſſents from this opinion; but ſo generally has it prevailed, that the name of Ophir has been beſtowed upon a mountain in the iſland. This mountain is of a very extraordinary height, being calculated at 13,842 feet, which is conſiderably more than the celebrated Peak of Teneriffe. The climate of Sumatra is very diſagreeable, being exceedingly ſubject to violent rains, which are almoſt always accompanied with thunder and lightning. There are alſo great numbers of volcanoes on the iſland, and of conſequence it is alſo ſubject to earthquakes. It is from Sumatra that moſt of the caſſia comes to Europe. The tree producing it is about 50 or 60 feet high; the ſtem about two feet in diameter, with a fine regular ſpreading head. The chief trade with this iſland, however, is in pepper. The Engliſh Eaſt India company have two ſettlements here, viz. Ben-coolen and Fort Marlborough, 3 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and 102 eaſt longitude; from which their cargoes of this commodity are principally brought.

The iſland of Sumatra is inhabited by two diſtinct races of people. Thoſe on the ſea coaſt are Mahometans, and Malays from the oppoſite peninſula of Malacca. Thoſe of the interior parts are Pagans, and governed by their own princes. It is obſervable, that the people here are generally ſubject to ſwellings in the throat, like thoſe of Thibet already mentioned. The Battas, who inhabit the country producing the caſſia, differ conſiderably from the reſt, having no king, but living in villages, and generally at variance with one another. Theſe villages are fortified very ſtrongly with double paliſades of the wood of the camphor-tree pointed, and between theſe they place pieces of ſharp bamboo, ſo artfully, that, though quite out of ſight, they will pierce quite through the foot of a perſon who treads upon them. In behaviour they are very barbarous, putting to death, and even eating the priſoners they take in war; hanging up their ſkulls as trophies in the houſes where the unmarried men and boys ſleep. They allow of polygamy to an unlimited extent, but ſeldom take more than *eight* wives, all of whom live in one houſe

with the husband. All the other inhabitants of Sumatra are governed by laws, and some have written ones. The Malays use the Arabic character, and the people who inhabit the country between the districts belonging to the British and Dutch, write with a piece of bamboo on a long and narrow slip of the bark of a tree. Contrary to the custom of all other nations they begin at the bottom, but write from left to right like the Europeans.

12. *Eganho*, an island about 90 miles from Sumatra, is surrounded with such terrible rocks and breakers, that it is very little known. It is said to be inhabited by a savage people, who are tall and well made, but go entirely naked. They are armed with clubs and lances, and have a language peculiar to themselves.

13. *Java* is the principal island in the East Indies belonging to the Dutch; and where Batavia, the capital of all their settlements in that part of the world is situated, south latitude 6° 10′, east longitude 106° 20′. The produce of the island is similar to that of others in tropical climates; but the air, or some other circumstance, renders it unhealthy almost beyond any country in the known world. The city is large, populous, and built after the manner of those in Holland. It is about four miles and an half in circumference, with walls and five gates; but the suburbs are said to contain ten times as many inhabitants as the city. The governor appears in all the pomp of eastern magnificence, but the police of the place is entirely European. A great number of Chinese, supposed not to be fewer than 100,000, have their residence upon this island, though it appears that they are sometimes very cruelly treated. In the year 1740, thirty thousand of these unhappy people were massacred without any reason assigned, or crime pretended against them. For this the governor was remanded back from Europe to Batavia to be tried, and was never heard of afterwards. The Dutch troops, kept in the island of Batavia, amount to about 18,000.

14. *Andaman and Nicobar Islands* are situated at the entrance of the Bay of Bengal, and are inhabited by an harmless and inoffensive set of people. Though inconsiderable in extent, they yet furnish fruits and some other necessaries in quantity sufficient for the ships that touch at Bengal.

15. *Ceylon* is looked upon to be the finest island in the world, insomuch, that some have imagined it to have been the seat of the terrestrial paradise. It is besides of considerable magnitude, being about 250 miles long, and 200 broad. It has plenty of wood and water throughout every part, and produces not only all kinds of excellent fruits, but the finest spices, cinnamon itself not excepted. The tree which produces this valuable spice is a kind of laurel, and has two or three barks. The wood of the tree, when stripped, serves for building, and other ordinary purposes. It is found in greatest plenty in the neighbourhood of the Dutch settlements. The other commodities are gold, silver, and precious stones of all kinds except diamonds; ivory, silk, crystal, saltpetre, musk, lead, iron, steel, &c.; and there are plenty of black cattle and other useful animals, while, on the other hand, they want not these most destructive and terrible of all the brute creation, the tyger, and monstrous serpent called in the western continent *Buio*, but in the East Indies *Annaconda*. This creature is sometimes met with 30 feet long, and as thick as a man's waist, but so dilatable is its stomach and the substance of its body, that it is capable of swallowing one of the larger quadrupeds, as a cow or

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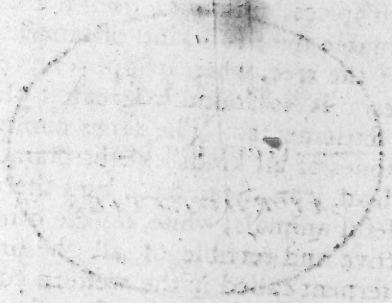

AFRICA
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Zaoula
Ghergela
Catrone
Lemtuna
Berdoa
The Serem
Twaghes
ZAARA OR THE DESART
Sanhaga
The Sunda
Agades
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Surnfiga
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Zanfara
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Bito
Tombut
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Dauma
Medra
Jalofs
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NEGROLAND
Bissago Is
Sierra Leone
GUINEA
Grain Coast
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Gold Coast
Slave Coast
Benin
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Kurumba
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Desart of Sahara
Equinoctial Line
I St Matthew
I St Thomas
ETHIOPIAN SEA
Ascention I
Meridian of London
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Tropic of Capricorn
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Medina
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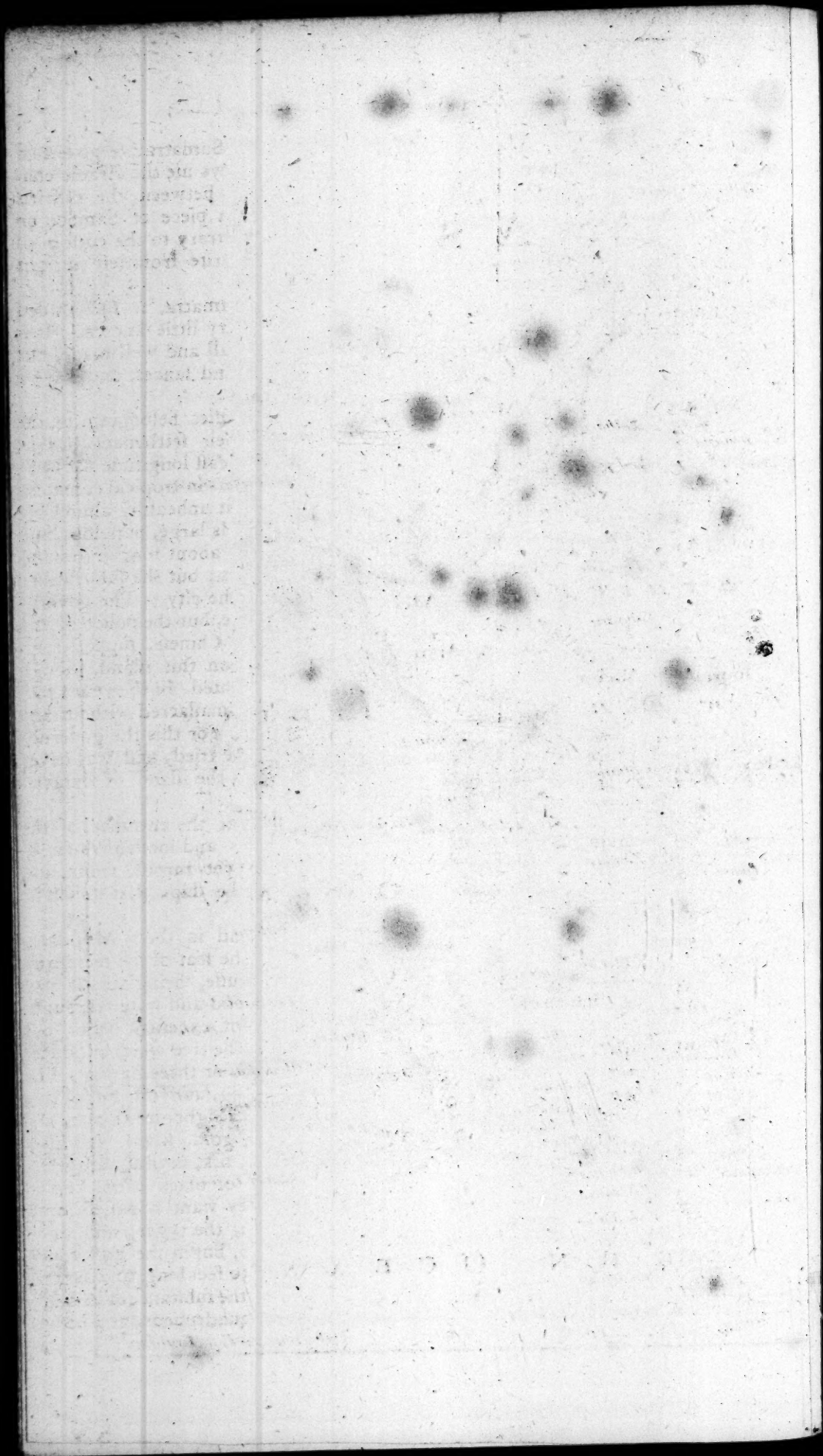
Tropic of Cancer
Mecca
Desart of Nubia
NUBIA
Dongola
Sennar
Dambea L.
Gorham
ABASSIA
Zeila
Adel
Sangara
Ajan
Jinjiro
Alaba
Magadoxa
INDIAN
Antropophagos
or Men Eaters
Melinda
Formosa
Baxos de Patram
Abrigante I.
Mocuemuli
Lake of Zambre
Zanjabar
Monfia
OCEAN
C. Francisco
C. Miguel
Mocuri
Mouth of the Mozambic
Maurica
Comoro
C. Natal
I. de Sable
Dos Garcios
Monomotapa
Mauritius I.
Diego Reis
I. of Bourbon
Limbaoe
Gold Mines
Dauphin
St. John of Lisbon
Hottentots
St. Lucia
de Natal
Stephens Pt.
St Christopher
Vessel B.
Degrees E fr. London



an ox. It is not poiſonous, nor indeed has it any occaſion for poiſon, being endowed with ſtrength ſufficient to conquer even the tyger himſelf. It watches its prey by getting up into the top of a buſhy tree, twiſting its tail about one of the large branches, whence it darts down its head upon the unwary animals that come below. If the creature it ſeizes upon be large, and make much reſiſtance, the ſerpent winds himſelf about it, and, by the vaſt ſtrength of his embrace, breaks all its bones; then drawing it out as long as poſſible, as owls do mice in order to ſwallow them, he laſtly, ſlabbers it all over with his ſaliva, and then employs perhaps a whole day in ſucking it into his ſtomach. The elephants of Ceylon are reckoned preferable to any in the world, and ſome of the ſpotted kind are to be met with here. Ceylon was invaded by the Portugueſe on their firſt arrival in the Eaſt Indies; but, in 1656, the Dutch received an invitation from the natives to defend them againſt theſe uſurpers. The Dutchmen did not heſitate at complying with their requeſt, but had no ſooner expelled the Portugueſe than they monopolized the whole trade of the iſland to themſelves, and have continued to keep poſſeſſion of it ever ſince; ſo that they now have the king a kind of priſoner in his capital city named *Candy*. In January 1782, Trincomaley, the principal ſea-port in the iſland, was taken by a Britiſh fleet, but ſoon after retaken by the French; and at laſt reſtored by the treaty of peace in 1783. The inhabitants are ſober and inoffenſive, but have a great many foreigners intermixed with them.

15. *The Maldives* are a cluſter of ſmall rocky iſlands, ſcarce riſing above the ſurface of the water, in the neighbourhood of Cape Comorin; and ſituated between the equator, and ſeven degrees north latitude. The principal commodity is the cocoa-tree, a vegetable ſo extenſively uſeful, that it ſerves for building the hulls of veſſels, furniſhing alſo ropes, ſails, anchors, and every other neceſſary for the veſſel, beſides proviſions for thoſe who navigate it. The Dutch principally frequent theſe iſlands for the ſake of *Cowries*, a kind of ſmall ſhells which go for money on ſome parts of the coaſt of Africa.

Theſe are the principal iſlands belonging to the continent of Aſia. Some others there are in the northern ſeas, as the *Kuriles*, &c.; but as they have been only noticed and deſcribed of late years, we muſt reckon them to be part of the new geographical diſcoveries, and refer our account of them to that head.

AFRICA.

THE third great diviſion of the globe is a peninſula of vaſt magnitude, extending from north to ſouth about 4300 miles in length, and in breadth about 3500 from eaſt to weſt. Its ſhape bears ſome reſemblance to that of a pyramid, whoſe baſe is the northern part, and the

the apex its ſouthern promontory, called the Cape of Good Hope. On the north it is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, which ſeparates it from Europe; on the ſouth by the Southern Ocean; on the weſt by the Atlantic; and on the eaſt by the Iſthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean. The Iſthmus juſt mentioned connects it with Aſia, and is a neck of land between 50 and 60 miles in breadth. The utmoſt extent of this continent is between ſouth latitude 34° 00′ and north latitude 38° 30′; and between 17° 20′ weſt longitude to 50° 20′ eaſt longitude; ſo that the equator divides it almoſt exactly in the middle.

From this account of the ſituation of Africa, it might have been concluded, though we had not experience of the truth of it, that it is the warmeſt quarter of all the four diviſions of the globe. This indeed has been verified by the experience of all ages, and the ancients were ſo well convinced of the truth of it, that they imagined the internal parts of Africa to be abſolutely uninhabitable, by reaſon of the heat of the climate. The fallacy of ſuch notions, however, has long been detected; and all parts of this continent are found not only to be habitable, but actually inhabited. The barbarity of the people is no objection to the country. It is certain, that the continent of Africa in many places offers the richeſt and moſt valuable productions of nature almoſt ſpontaneouſly. Gold is found on the eaſtern coaſt in ſuch abundance, or at leaſt the places whence it has been formerly dug are ſo apparent, that many travellers, Mr Bruce among the reſt, are of opinion that the Ophir mentioned in ſcripture was ſituated here, and that, farther to the northward, the Tharſhiſh, or Tarſhiſh, mentioned by the ſacred writers is alſo ſeated. On the weſtern coaſt gold is found in equal plenty; and many of the mountains are ſaid to be compoſed almoſt entirely of copper. The moſt uſeful gums are produced in many parts on the weſtern coaſt; with the greateſt abundance of timber of all kinds, and innumerable valuable plants and flowers, differing from any to be met with in the other quarters of the world. In many parts of this continent, indeed, vaſt and burning deſarts are to be met with; but it is more than probable that by proper attention and induſtry even theſe might be fertilized, and the whole rendered a comfortable and pleaſant habitation for man.*

Africa is extremely well ſituated for commerce, not only on account of its almoſt inſular ſituation, which affords a vaſt extent of coaſt, and its lying as it were in the middle of the world, ſo that it has a ready communication with Europe, Aſia, and America; but likewiſe, as by the large

* A remarkable inſtance of what may be done in this way we have in Dr Shaw's travels, when ſpeaking of the Monks of Sinai, whom we have already had occaſion to mention under the head of Arabia. "The Monks of Sinai, ſays he, in a long proceſs of time, have covered over with dung, and the ſweepings of their convent, near four acres of naked rocks, which produce as good cabbage, roots, ſallad, and all kinds of pot herbs, as any ſoil and climate whatſoever. They have likewiſe raiſed olive, plumb, almond, apple, and pear-trees, not only in great numbers, but of excellent qualities. The pears, particularly, are in ſuch eſteem at Cairo, that there is a preſent of them ſent every year to the Baſhaw, and perſons of the firſt quality. Neither are their grapes inferior in ſize and flavour to any whatſoever; it being fully demonſtrated, by what this little garden produces, how far an indefatigable induſtry may prevail over nature; and that ſeveral places are capable of culture and improvement, which were intended by nature to be barren, and which the lazy and ſlothful have always ſuffered to be ſo."

large rivers Nile, Niger, Zaire, &c.; on the weſtern ſide, and thoſe of Yaſs, Aco, Quilirnay, Zambeze, Sofala, &c.; on the eaſtern ſide, its products could, with no great difficulty, be conveyed, even from the heart of the continent, to any other quarter of the globe. At the mouths of theſe rivers there are moſt excellent harbours, where ſhips may ride ſafely in all kinds of weather. In ſhort, this continent, though neglected, we may ſay, ſince the foundation of the world, ſeems to offer an inexhauſtible treaſure of every thing valuable the world can afford; and it is ſurpriſing that the European nations ſhould have been at ſuch pains to eſtabliſh colonies in the remoteſt regions of the world, where the coloniſts could not be reduced if they took it into their heads to revolt, and neglect a country equally rich, and much nearer, where it would be more eaſily in their power to curb the rebellious ſpirit of thoſe who ſhould eſtabliſh themſelves there, if they thought it their intereſt to keep them in ſubjection.

The principal rivers of Africa are thoſe already mentioned, of which the Nile is the only one whoſe courſe has been accurately traced; and of which we ſhall give an account under the head Egypt. The ſource of the Niger is entirely unknown, nor do we know any thing particular concerning that of the others already mentioned. The mountains are thoſe of Atlas in Barbary, the mountains of the Moon, which divide Abyſſinia from Lower Ethiopia, thoſe of Sierra Leone, ſeparating Negroe-land from Guinea, which laſt were called by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of the violent thunder and lightning to which they are perpetually ſubject, &c. The principal Capes are thoſe named Cape Verd, the moſt weſterly; and the Cape of Good Hope, the moſt ſoutherly point of the continent. There is only one ſtrait, viz. that of Babel Mandel, or Babel Mandeb, which joins the Red Sea to the Indian Ocean.

This continent formerly had ſome powerful empires and kingdoms, as thoſe of Egypt, Ethiopia, Carthage, Mauritania, Numidia, &c. all of which were ſwallowed up by the enormous power of the Romans. Under them the natives, accuſtomed to ſervitude and oppreſſion, became ready to yield to any other maſter that ſhould offer; and therefore were unable to reſiſt the Vandals, Saracens, or Turks, who have ſince oppreſſed and ruined the northern parts, while the internal and ſouthern countries have conſtantly been inhabited by nations ſcarcely one degeee removed from brutes, and concerning whom it is difficult to ſay any thing ſatisfactory. The whole of the continent of Africa therefore may be divided into three great parts, according to which we ſhall now treat of it, viz. Egypt, the ſtates of Barbary, and the tract lying betwixt the Tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope. This laſt indeed includes many nations, but all of them ſo barbarous, and ſo little known to Europeans, that no particular account of them can be given; nor do the reſearches of a late traveller into Abyſſinia ſeem to have added much to our knowledge in this reſpect. The following table ſhews the diviſions of the continent of Africa into kingdoms, with the principal iſlands belonging to it, according to the beſt authorities.

Nations

	Nations.	Length.	Bread.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear fr. London.	Diff of time fr. London.	Religion.
Barbary.	Morocco, Tafilet, &c.	500	480	219,500	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahom.
	Algiers	480	100	143,700	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahom.
	Tunis	210	170	54,400	Tunis	990 S.E.	0 39 bef.	Mahom.
	Tripoli	700	240	75,010	Tripoli	1260 S.E.	0 56 bef.	Mahom.
	Barca	400	300	66,400	Tolemeta	1440 S.E.	1 26 bef.	Mahom.
	Egypt	600	250	140,710	Grand Cairo	1920 S.E.	2 21 bef.	Mahom.
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,020	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans.
	Zaara	3400	660	739,300	Tegessa	1840 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans.
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,100	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans.
Up. Ethiopia.	Guinea	1800	360	510,100	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans.
	Nubia	940	600	264,020	Nubia	2418 S.E.	2 12 bef.	Ma. & Pa.
	Abyssinia	900	800	378,010	Gondar	2880 S.E.	2 20 bef.	Christian
	Abex	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3580 S.E.	2 36 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,100 square miles.							
Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	49,300	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Congo	540	420	172,870	St Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Angola	360	250	38,410	Loando	3750 S	0 58 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Benguela	430	180	64,010	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans
	Mataman	450	240	144,010	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans
	Ajan	900	300	234,010	Brava	3702 S.E	2 40 bef.	Pagans
	Zanguebar	1400	350	275,010	Melinda or Mozambiq.	4440 S.E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans
	Monomotapa	960	660	222,400	Monomotap.	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Monemugi	960	660	310,100	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef	Pagans
	Sofol	480	300	97,510	Sofola	4600 S.E.	2 18 bef	Pagans
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	184,910	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans
	Caffraria or Hottentot	708	660	200,350	Cape of G Hope.	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Pagans

The

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian seas and Atlantic Ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India:

Islands.	Sq. M.	Towns.	Belong to & trade with
Babel-Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea -		Babel-Mandel -	All Nations
Socotora, in the Indian Ocean	3,700	Calausia -	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto -	1,010	Joanna -	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto -	168,000	St Austin -	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto - -	1,850	Mauritius -	French
Bourbon, ditto -	2,200	Bourbon -	Ditto
St Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean		St Helena -	British
Ascension, ditto - -			Uninhabited
St Matthew, ditto -			Ditto
St Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-island, Fernandopo }	ditto	St Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Cape Verd Islands, ditto .	2,010	St Domingo -	Ditto
Goree, ditto - -		Port St Michael	French
Canaries, ditto -		Palma, St Christopher's	Spanish
Madeiras, ditto - -	1,700	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America. }	do	2,100 Angra, St Michael	Ditto

EGYPT.

Extent, Situation, and Boundaries. THIS kingdom, so much mentioned both by sacred and profane historians, extends in length from Sienna, situated under the Tropic of Cancer, to Cape Burlos, forming the most advanced point of the Delta, about 670 miles in a north and south direction. Its greatest breadth from east to west is about 200 miles, measuring in a right line from the ruins of Peluſa to the tower of the Arabs, formerly called *Taposiris*. According to the latest maps it lies between 23° 30′ and 31° 40′ north latitude, and between 26° 00′ and 36° 15′ east longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; on the south by a range of mountains, which separate it from Nubia; on the west by the deserts of Libya; and on the east by the isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea.

Divisions. From the earliest periods of antiquity this country has been divided into the Upper and Lower Egypt. The former, which is the southern division, is a long valley, beginning at Sienna, and ending at Cairo. Lower Egypt comprehends the space between Cairo, the Mediterranean, the isthmus of Suez, and Libya. The island named Delta is formed by the division of the Nile into two branches, which separating at a place named *Batn el Bakara*, or the *Cow's Belly*, fall into the sea below Damietta and Rosetta.

Face of the Country. This is ſpoken of in the higheſt terms by travellers who have viſited this part of the world. On entering Egypt at Roſetta, the whole appears like one continued garden. The great river Nile, or rather one of its branches, rolling between two ſteep banks, affords a fine proſpect; and the woods of palm-trees, with thoſe which bear oranges, lemons, bananas, and other fruits common to warm countries, render the place aſtoniſhingly delightful by their perpetual verdure, and the proſpect for ſome time continues to be equally pleaſant. As we aſcend farther up the country, however, this pleaſant view gradually changes, and the miſery of the inhabitants becomes conſpicuous. The ſameneſs of the proſpect alſo becomes diſguſting; nothing is to be ſeen but ſome thin woods of palm trees and ſycamores, with a few villages compoſed of miſerable huts, with mud walls, and built on mounds of earth artificially raiſed, in order to ſecure them from the inundation of the river. Proceeding farther up, we at laſt come into the moſt barren and deſart country that can be imagined, and which it is impoſſible that any words can deſcribe.

Air and Climate. The air in all parts of Egypt is extremely hot, but eſpecially in thoſe towards the ſouth; and it is perhaps augmented by the lowneſs of the land in general, which ſcarcely riſes above the level of the ſea. Hence there are only two ſeaſons in this country, which may be diſtinguiſhed by the names of the cool and the hot. The former continues from November to near the end of February, and the latter all the reſt of the year. Even during the latter part of February, the ſun is ſo hot as to be intolerable to an European at nine o'clock in the morning; and a moſt profuſe perſpiration takes place, the leaſt ſuppreſſion of which is ſure to be attended with the utmoſt danger. During this ſeaſon the air ſeems inflamed, and the ſky ſparkles; but in the cool ſeaſon it is ſometimes foggy; and the European merchants who reſide at Cairo frequently complain of cold. Notwithſtanding this exceſſive heat, however, the climate is far from being unhealthy, which we can only aſcribe to the exceſſive dryneſs of the air, which is ſuch, that fleſh meat expoſed to the north wind, even in ſummer, does not corrupt, but ſoon becomes as hard as wood; and the carcaſes of dead animals found in the deſarts are dried to ſuch a degree, that a man, with one hand, may eaſily lift the body of a camel. By reaſon of this dryneſs of the air, Egypt is exempted from rain, hail, ſnow, or thunder. Earthquakes are alſo very rare in this country, though they are not entirely without example; for we are told of a very deſtructive one which happened in the year 1112. In the maritime parts, however, the air of Egypt is moiſt, by reaſon of the vapours riſing from the ſea; ſo that, at Alexandria and Roſetta, iron cannot be kept 24 hours without ruſting.

Winds. Theſe are more regular in Egypt than in moſt other countries. About the middle of May, the wind, which till then had blown from the eaſt, alters its direction, and blows from the north, continuing that or a north-weſt direction during the whole months of June and July, varying ſometimes to the eaſt and ſometimes to the weſt. About the end of July it ſettles in the north, and continues that direction during the month of Auguſt and the half of September. Towards the end of that month it returns to the eaſt, though not abſolutely fixed, and continues in that direction during the whole of October and November. In December it becomes more variable and tempeſtuous, blowing commonly from the north,

north, north-weſt, and weſt, continuing to do ſo during this month, January, and February. Towards the end of February, the ſoutherly winds begin to prevail; and, during the months of March and April, the ſouth-eaſt, ſouth, and ſouth-weſt winds are moſt common; but, about the end of April the eaſt wind begins, and continues till the middle of May, when it is ſucceeded by the north wind, as has been already mentioned. Theſe ſouth winds, blowing over a vaſt tract of ſandy deſarts, have all the ſuffocating properties already mentioned under the head of Arabia; and in Egypt the moſt violent proceed from the ſouth ſouth-weſt. Mr Bruce, in travelling through the deſarts between Upper Egypt and Abyſſinia, ſeveral times experienced their direful influence; but there he found them come from the ſouth-eaſt. They were always preceded by vaſt pillars of moving ſand raiſed by whirlwinds, which had a tremendous appearance, often appearing like pillars of fire, with their tops as high as the clouds, and at one time they ſhewed the beautiful reſemblance of golden ſpangles or ſtars diffuſed through their whole ſubſtance.

The river Nile, and its annual inundation. The ſources of this celebrated river were ſo much unknown to the ancients, that to ſearch for them became a proverb to expreſs any ridiculous or impoſſible attempt. By the Jeſuit miſſionaries, however, who formerly paſſed into Abyſſinia, they certainly were explored; and the very reaſon given by Mr Bruce for ſuppoſing that the miſſionaries never were there, muſt be a convincing proof to every rational perſon that they really did viſit them. The reaſon he gives, is a ſmall difference betwixt his calculation and that of the miſſionaries in the latitude of the fountains from which the principal branch of the Nile proceeds, and which, according to his map, is exactly in 11 degrees north latitude. The difference is not quite a degree; it is impoſſible to know which of the travellers are in the right, and we may as well make this difference an argument againſt Mr Bruce, as againſt the miſſionaries. According to both accounts, it riſes in the territory of Gojam in Abyſſinia, runs firſt northward, then changing its courſe to north-eaſt, falls into the great lake of Dembea, from whence taking a circle ſouth and weſtward, it again aſſumes a northerly direction, and being joined by two other large rivers, named the White River and the Atbara, or Aſtaboras, it paſſes through the great deſart of Nubia, enters Egypt at the ſouth weſt corner under the Tropic of Cancer, and continues its courſe between two rows of mountains, fertilizing annually the low ground between them; for the whole of Upper Egypt, as has already been mentioned, is a long and not very broad valley. The fountains are ſituated, as has already been ſaid, in 11 degrees north latitude; and almoſt 37 eaſt longitude; and are three in number, riſing out of the marſhy ground at the foot of a mountain; the water is fine, and iſſues in conſiderable quantity. About two miles from its ſource the ſtream becomes ſufficiently large to turn a mill, but ſoon afterwards increaſes greatly, though even after a courſe of 60 miles it is fordable at certain ſeaſons.

The fertility of Egypt is well known to ariſe entirely from the annual overflowing of the Nile, and this is now equally well known to ariſe from the rains which fall periodically in Abyſſinia. By theſe its waters are augmented, and begin to riſe about the middle of June, and continue to do ſo till the middle of September, or the end of that month, the inundation taking up 100 days to arrive at its height. After that time it gradually decreaſes and returns to its former channel, and ſo great is the in-

fluence of the ſun, that even the vaſt quantity of water which at all times runs in its channel, becomes corrupted and heated to ſuch a degree, that it can ſcarce be uſed before the return of the flood. No notice, however, is taken of the riſe of the river till the end of June, when it has uſually ſwelled to five or ſix cubits beyond its former ſtandard. This is publickly proclaimed through the ſtreets of Cairo by a crier, and the daily increaſe continues to be proclaimed in like manner, till it has attained the height of 16 peeks, when great rejoicings are made, and the inhabitants cry out *Waffah Ullah*, "God has given us abundance." This commonly happens about the end of July, or before the 20th of Auguſt, and the ſooner it riſes to the height juſt mentioned, the greater hope they have of a plentiful harveſt. Sometimes, however, they are diſappointed, as was the caſe in 1705, when it did not riſe to the requiſite height till the 19th of September; the conſequence of which was, that a famine and peſtilence enſued. After the inundation has riſen to this height, the banks are cut to let it into the canals which water the country, and prepare it for the reception of the ſeed. The height to which it riſes is different, depending entirely on the quantity of rain that falls in Abyſſinia. If it does not attain to 16 peeks, the inhabitants are exempted from paying tribute. Eighteen cubits produces but an indifferent crop; 22 a very good one; but, if the inundation exceeds 24, a famine enſues, becauſe the waters do not retire in time for ſowing the corn.

The waters of the Nile are mightily extolled by the Egyptians, on account of their wholeſome and light qualities, and likewiſe their pleaſant taſte; but theſe commendations are naturally to be expected from people who never ſaw any other water; though it is certain, that by the great length of its courſe, the Nile muſt be very perfectly deprived of every ſaline and earthy taint, excepting only the mud which happens to be accidentally mixed with it. This indeed is ſo abundant in the dry ſeaſon, that it cannot be uſed without filtration, and even then has a putrid quality, which were it to continue long, would undoubtedly bring on dangerous diſeaſes, but the waters of the inundation are always pure and wholeſome.

Soil and Produce. The fertility of the ſoil of Egypt has been celebrated in all ages, and if proper care was taken, there is not the leaſt reaſon to doubt that it would now be the ſame as ever. In the dry months indeed the whole of this country is a duſty deſart; though this is owing to nothing but the want of water; for the gardens which are artificially watered afford a perpetual verdure. As ſome parts of the country lie too high to be reached by the inundation, artificial means are likewiſe uſed for watering the corn grounds, though by reaſon of the unartful methods made uſe of, very little produce can be expected. One of the ways in which the water is generally raiſed is by the *Sakiah*, or Perſian wheel, turned by oxen, and having ſeveral earthen veſſels faſtened to it by a rope, which empty themſelves as the wheel turns round, into a ciſtern at top. In places where the banks of the river are high, they ſometimes make baſons in the ſide of them, near which they fix an upright pole, on the top of which is another moving upon an axle. At one end of the croſs pole hangs a great ſtone, and at the other a leathern bucket; and the latter being pulled down by two men, is raiſed by the weight of the ſtone, and emptied into a proper ciſtern. From theſe ciſterns the water is conveyed to the gardens, or plantations,

and

and allowed to run in ſeveral little trenches, from whence it is conducted all round the beds in rills, which the gardener eaſily ſtops by raiſing the earth with his foot, and diverts the current another way.

Throughout all Egypt the ſoil is remarkably impregnated with that ſpecies of ſalt called Mineral Alkali, mingled with ſome common ſalt, and this may be ſuppoſed a reaſon of the extraordinary quickneſs of vegetation in this country, which is ſo remarkable, that a certain ſpecies of gourd, named *Kara*, will ſend out in one night, ſhoot four inches in length; but for the ſame reaſon in all probability it is, that foreign plants will not thrive here. Thus the European merchants reſiding at Cairo are obliged annually to ſend to Malta for the ſeeds of their garden ſtuffs; and always obſerve, that though they thrive very well, and bear ſeed the firſt year, yet if that ſeed is ſown, the ſucceeding plants are too weak and ſlender. All kinds of grain are produced in plenty in Egypt, and the harveſt months are March and April, during which the people reap three crops, viz. one of lettuces and cucumbers, (the latter being a principal article of food with them) another of melons, and a third of corn. Dates, figs, plantanes, &c. are produced here in great plenty, as well as palm trees, from which wine is made.

Animals. The horſes of Egypt are ſmall, but very ſpirited, and capable of making great exertions; but Chriſtians are not allowed to ride upon them, aſſes being the means of conveyance allotted for them, of which there is a very fine breed. They have plenty of black cattle and ſheep, both of which are very prolific; the former generally producing two calves, and the latter four lambs a year. It is ſaid that 200,000 oxen are daily employed throughout this country in raiſing water by means of the clumſy machines already mentioned. The moſt miſchievous animals they have are the tyger and crocodile. The latter, being an amphibious creature, lives in the river Nile, where it conceals itſelf among the long graſs, or reeds which grow near its banks, and waits for its prey. It is in the form of a lizard, with an hard ſcaly ſkin, ſtrong enough to reſiſt a muſket ball, and ſometimes arrives at the enormous ſize of 20 feet in length. It has four ſhort legs, feet armed with claws, and a mouth armed with terrible teeth. When it lies in wait, it is ſaid to aſſume the appearance of an old trunk of a tree, and thus often to delude the unwary traveller within its reach, when it ſuddenly ſurpriſes and devours him. It is ſaid that this creature will even attack the tyger, who frequently comes to the river to drink; it being remarked, that of all quadrupeds he is moſt tormented with thirſt. On the crocodile's attacking him, he is ſaid to ſtrike his claws into its eyes; on which the latter takes to the deep water, carries his adverſary down to the bottom, and both periſh together. According to Mr Bruce, however, we ſhould be apt to ſuppoſe the accounts of the crocodile, given by ſome travellers, to be greatly exaggerated; for he informs us, that it was cuſtomary for the natives to bathe in the river, even in ſight of them, and without any fear. Poſſibly it may be only ſome huge and overgrown ones that are ſo much to be dreaded. There are likewiſe to be met with in Egypt, hyænas, antelopes, apes, a rat called ichneumon, and the hippopotamus, or river horſe; alſo the chameleon, celebrated for its property of changing its colour, and for living on air, though this laſt is found to be a miſtake, and it is now known to feed upon flies. Egypt likewiſe produces great numbers of birds of prey, as eagles and hawks; it abounds alſo with water-fowl of all kinds. The ibis, a

creature

creature ſomething reſembling a duck, is alſo a native of this country; and was deified by the ancients for its property of deſtroying ſerpents and venemous inſects. Oſtriches are alſo common here, and are ſo ſtrong, that the Arabs ſometimes ride upon them.

Inhabitants, Manners, and Cuſtoms. The inhabitants of Egypt are now compoſed of four diſtinct races of people. 1. The Arabs. 2. The Copts. 3. The Turks; and 4. The Mamlouks, or Mamelucs, who are in reality the maſters of the country. The firſt differ little from thoſe already deſcribed under the head of Arabia, retaining their ferocity, wandering and thieviſh diſpoſition. The Copts are the deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians; and are an ill-looking ſlovenly race, of a yelloviſh black complexion, but are generally good accountants. Their dreſs conſiſts generally of linen drawers, with an upper garment of white linen; but thoſe of the meaner ſort content themſelves with a linen or woollen wrapper put round their body like a blanket. The Mamlouks, who, as we have ſaid, are the governors of the country, came originally from Circaſſia, whence they were brought by the Turks, and ſold for ſlaves; and it is ſurpriſing, that this race of inhabitants is not propagated in Egypt in the way of natural generation, but by a continual importation of new ſlaves from the original country. The Mamlouks indeed mary, but their children always die, and ſince their firſt importation this has invariably been found to be the caſe. It is accounted for from their always marrying their countrywomen, and never connecting themſelves with the natives. They are a moſt baſe and degenerate race, deſtitute of every good quality, and poſſeſſed of every bad one we can imagine. In their dreſs they are exceſſively extravagant as well as abſurd; and their extravagance in this reſpect has been communicated to the European merchants who reſide at Cairo, inſomuch, that none of them imagines himſelf ſufficiently provided in clothes, unleſs his wardrobe amount to five or ſix hundred pounds in value.

The diverſions of the Egyptians are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of the Perſians. We cannot, however, omit the mentioning of thoſe which take place at the opening of the canals to let the water of the Nile overflow the country. The ceremony is performed by the Baſhaw himſelf, who always gives the firſt ſtroke, accompanied by all his great officers, attended by a vaſt multitude of people. On this occaſion the barges and galleys in which the Baſhaw and his officers ſail up the river make a very ſplendid appearance, having ſails of different colours, with a number of flags and ſtreamers. They are attended with trumpets and other muſic, accompanied with the firing of guns, and the acclamations of the people. Bonfires, illuminations, and fireworks, with various kinds of games and exerciſes, are continued for three days and three nights without intermiſſion. Among other feats performed on this occaſion, M. Thevenot informs us of two ſwimmers, one of whom he ſaw, with his hands tied behind his back, and his feet bound with an iron chain of ten pounds weight, who ſtood upright in the water, and in that manner went from the opening of the canal quite through Grand Cairo, which is between three and four miles, preceded by a boat full of people with drums and trumpets, and followed by ſeveral others. He was rewarded by the Baſhaw with a fine veſt, and a preſent in money, beſides which he collected a conſiderable ſum from the ſpectators. The other ſwam in chains from one end of the canal to the other, with a pipe in his mouth, and a diſh of coffee in his hand, which he carried to the end

of

of his voyage without ſpilling a drop, and had the ſame reward from the viceroy.

Religion. Mahommedaniſm is eſtabliſhed as the religion of this country, if indeed it can be ſaid to have any religion in it; but Jews, and Chriſtians ſuch as they are, have a toleration.

Language. The Coptic is the moſt ancient language in Egypt, but is now almoſt quite extinct. The current language is the modern Arabic, commonly called *Arabeſque.*

Learning and Learned Men. In the early ages Egypt was famous for its learning; and it is certain, that from this country the Europeans firſt derived their knowledge of every uſeful art. By the invaſions and devaſtation committed by Nebuchadnezzar, Cambyſes, Xerxes, and Ochus, the country was reduced to the moſt deplorable ſituation, and no doubt every kind of uſeful knowledge almoſt annihilated. Under the ſucceſſors of Alexander the Great it revived; and by means of the ſchools of Alexandria, this country once more became the greateſt ſeminary of learning in the world. It continued to be ſo till the time of the barbarous Saracens, when the libraries were burnt, and every ſpecies of literature extinguiſhed. Its condition was not bettered by the Turks, nor their ſucceſſors the Mamlouks; ſo that at preſent every ſpecies of knowledge, human and divine, ſeems to be in a manner extinguiſhed, excepting that of a few ill-contrived manufactures, ſome ſkill in arithmetic, the abſurdities of aſtrology, and of the Mahommedan religion, which is here more abſurd than any where elſe.

Curioſities and Antiquities. Among the greateſt curioſities in this country, or perhaps in the whole world, we may reckon theſe people called *Pſylli*, who have the faculty, either natural or acquired, of enchanting the moſt venomous ſerpents, ſo that they ſhall have no power to bite or hurt them, though they retain all their miſchievous qualities with regard to others. Accounts of theſe have been tranſmitted to us by the Roman hiſtorians, but were looked upon as falſe till confirmed by thoſe of modern travellers. Mr Haſſelquiſt aſſures us, that he has ſeen one of theſe people handling the moſt venomous reptiles of this kind as if they had been laces; nay, Mr Bruce not only aſſures us of this fact, but that he has ſeen a fellow eat a living ſerpent, beginning at its tail, and proceeding all the way up to its head, without the creature offering to reſent ſuch a violent injury. In what manner this extraordinary enchantmen is performed we know not; for thoſe who practiſe it will not ſpeak upon the ſubject. The papyrus, a plant from which the paper was anciently made, and from which the word *paper* is derived, may likewiſe be accounted one of the natural curioſities of Egypt, but we are ignorant of the method in which it was prepared for that purpoſe. The method of hatching chickens in ovens was long peculiar to this country, but is now practiſed in ſeveral parts of Europe. With regard to the antiquities, they are ſo numerous, that our limits will not by any means allow us to enter into a detail of them. They conſiſt of the ruins of ancient Thebes, and a great number of other cities; but above all, of the enormous and ſtupendous maſſes called pyramids, of which there are great numbers of various ſizes built in the deſarts. Three great ones, particularly, draw the attention of travellers. Theſe ſtand on the weſt ſide of the Nile, not far from the ſeat of ancient Memphis. The largeſt is ſituated on a rock in the deſart of Libya, about a quarter of a mile from the plains of Egypt. There are various accounts of its height.

Mr

Mr Savary is of opinion that it was originally 800 feet high, but that it is now only 600; others make it much leſs. Its baſe is ſquare, and about 700 feet each way. It may be aſcended by a kind of ſteps, but very inconvenient and diſagreeable, being from three to four feet in height. Theſe, however, were not originally intended to be uſed as ſteps, but to ſupport the ſmooth ſtones with which it was covered; for that this was the caſe is certain, all the ſides of this pyramid having been originally ſmooth, and the top inacceſſible. In Strabo's time it was entire, and acceſs might be had to the paſſages within by taking out a looſe ſtone in the ſide; but all the apartments, originally cloſed with great care, were broke open in the time of the Arabian khalifs, probably in expectation of treaſure. From this we learn that it was probably no other than a tomb; the internal parts, which have been often deſcribed with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs, diſcovering nothing but ſome apartments which could ſerve for no other purpoſe. The ſtructure of the ſecond pyramid is much the ſame, but the third and all the reſt remain as yet unopened. Many of theſe in the deſart are ſuppoſed by Mr Bruce to be conſtructed of clay. The Sphynx is an enormous rock ſtanding over againſt the ſecond pyramid, cut into the repreſentation of that fabulous monſter. Its back is almoſt covered with ſand, and is 100 feet in length, but the head riſes 27 feet higher.

Principal Cities, &c. Theſe, however celebrated of old, are now almoſt entirely in ruins. The capital of the whole kingdom is Cairo, or Maſr, which, though large and populous, is exceſſively ill built and diſagreeable, by reaſon of its narrow ſtreets, and the frequency of the plague imported thither from Conſtantinople. A well, called the *well of Joſeph*, is ſhewn here, and may be accounted a curioſity, becauſe of its depth, which is no leſs than 300 feet. Several other works are attributed to him, but it is very doubtful whether juſtly or not. Here they have a ſtrange method of teaching camels to caper at the ſound of a drum. This is done by putting them when young upon a heated floor, beating a drum at the ſame time. The heat makes the poor creatures dance with pain, and at the ſame time they are ſo affected by the noiſe of the drum, that it never fails to ſet them a dancing when they hear it afterwards.

Alexandria is now in ruins, and Mr Bruce obſerves, that its original ruins are now buried under other ruins ſeveral feet deep; ſo that it is at preſent a moſt wretched and miſerable place. Roſetta has already been mentioned on account of its fine ſituation, for which it is only remarkable. The other remarkable places are Damietta, Bulac, and Seyd on the weſtern banks of the Nile: near this laſt are the ruins of the ancient Thebes.

Commerce and Manufactures. The commerce of Egypt is now almoſt entirely centered in Cairo, which is therefore very conſiderable; amounting, according to the accounts of the cuſtom-houſe officers in 1782, to L. 6,250,000. To this city a caravan comes annually from Abyſſinia, bringing ſlaves, ivory, gold-duſt, oſtrich feathers, gums, parrots, and monkeys; while another, deſtined for Mecca, arrives by the deſart of Alexandria, and uſually conſiſts of no fewer than 3000 camels. The caravan, on its return, brings India ſtuffs, ſhawls, pearls, gums, and perfumes; but the principal commodity is the much eſteemed coffee of Yemen. The ſame commodities likewiſe arrive by the way of Suez, and there are alſo veſſels from Marſeilles, Leghorn, and Venice,

which bring cloths, cochineal, grocery, paper, &c. In return for these the Egyptians export flax, thread, cotton, leather, wax, sal-ammoniac, saffron, sugar, sena, and cassia.

Government. At present Egypt may be said to be in a state of perfect anarchy, by reason of the negligence and political blunders of the Ottoman Porte. On the conquest of Egypt by Selim, in 1517, after a horrid massacre of the Mamlouks, he entered into a kind of treaty with them, in which it was agreed, that a kind of republic should be formed, the governors to be 24 lords, beys, or sangiacs, collected into a divan, but subordinate to a bashaw or viceroy. By degrees, however, the Mamlouks annihilated the viceroy's power entirely, assumed the government into their own hands, and now live in the most horrible state of warfare with one another, without paying the least regard to the commands of the grand signior. The greater part of these reside at Cairo, and each of them exerts sovereign power within his own district. We may have some notion of the condition of the people from the method taken by the officers who keep the peace in the city of Cairo. Each of these is attended by two or more executioners, with leather bags to contain the heads of those offenders, real or supposed, whom they happen to meet in the streets.

Revenues. These were formerly said to amount to a million sterling; but now probably they are almost all dissipated by the rascally beys, who oppress the people in a dreadful manner.

Military Strength. At present the military force of the Turks is entirely annihilated, and that of the Mamlouks substituted in its place. As the whole number of these do not much exceed 8000, it is evident, that no foreign invasion by an enemy of any force could be resisted; and we must certainly suppose it owing to their attention being continually drawn towards Russia, that the Turks do not send into Egypt an army sufficient to reduce or exterminate these wretches, whose conduct is a disgrace to human nature.

History. The Egyptians, like the Chinese, have made pretensions to the most incredible antiquity. For a vast number of ages they pretend that their country was governed by the gods. At last the immortals thought proper to delegate their government to a mortal man named *Menes*, but of whose origin we know nothing. The immortals, however, seem to have done nothing worthy of their character. The whole country was overflowed by the Nile and the waters of the ocean, in such a manner, as to make one continued morass; nay, even what we should think might have been peculiarly expected from *Immortals*, had been entirely omitted. The people were totally destitute of religion, as well as of every kind of knowledge that could render their life comfortable or happy. Menes corrected many of these deficiencies. He diverted the course of the Nile from its ancient channel, built the city of Memphis, civilized his subjects, and did all those things which are usually attributed to the founders of kingdoms, and which Mr Bryant supposes to be in all cases derived from some obscure knowledge of the patriarch Noah, and traditions concerning him and his children.

From the time of Menes, we meet with a vast chasm in the history of Egypt for no less than 1400 years; after which there is a piece of history distinctly enough related, however uncertain or unintelligible it may be at this time. This was an irruption of a multitude of shepherds, who

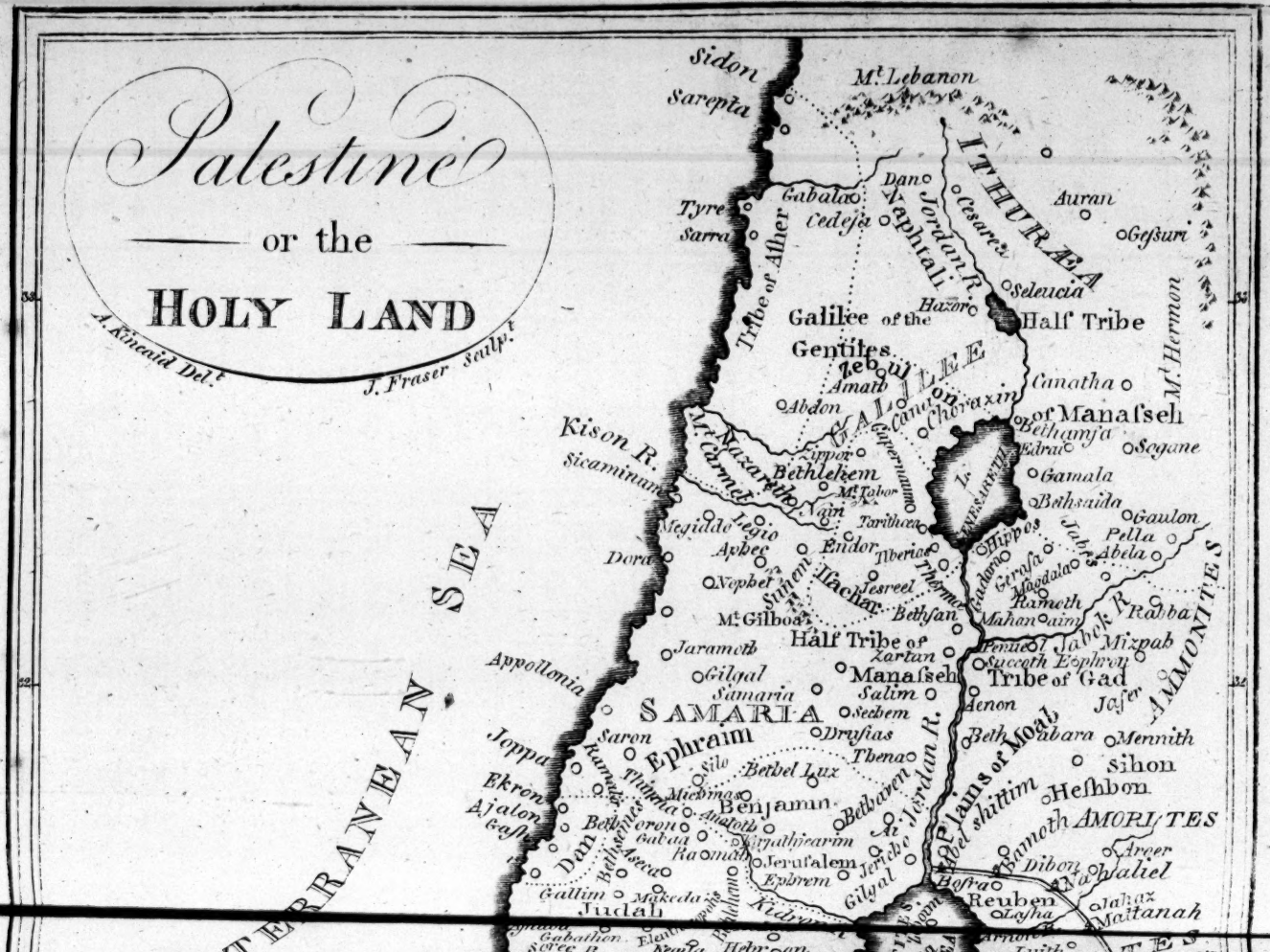
invaded Egypt from the eaſt, and, without much trouble, conquered the cowardly inhabitants, uſing them afterwards with the greateſt cruelty. Arabia is ſaid to have been the place from whence they came, and they were called *Hyſcos*, or *King-Shepherds*. They held Egypt in ſubjection for 259 years. At laſt, they were, by the good conduct of the king, named Amoſis, ſhut up in a place called *Aboris*, or Avaris, including a ſpace of 10,000 acres of land. Here they were cloſely beſieged by Amoſis, with an army of 400,000 men; but at laſt the king, finding himſelf unable to reduce them by force, propoſed an accommodation, which was readily accepted. In conſequence of this, the ſhepherds withdrew from the kingdom, to the number of 240,000; and, taking the way of the deſart, entered Syria; but fearing the Aſſyrians, who were at that time maſters of Aſia, and built there a city, capable of holding ſo great a multitude, which they called *Jeruſalem*.

From this imperfect and obſcure account, many have ſuppoſed that theſe ſhepherds were no other than the Iſraelites, and that we have here ſome imperfect relation of their departure out of Egypt. This, however, is by no means probable. Even in the time of Joſeph we find that "every * ſhepherd was an *abomination* to the Egyptians." We may with great reaſon therefore conclude, that the invaſion of the ſhepherds took place before the deſcent of the Iſraelites into Egypt. Mr Bryant gives ſtrong reaſons for ſuppoſing that they were the Cuſhites, or Babylonians, who ſpread themſelves over the moſt of the weſtern part of the world, conquering and civilizing wherever they came. To them alſo he aſcribes the many wonderful edifices of the moſt remote antiquity in Egypt. Mr Bruce, on the other hand, will have them to have been the *Berebers*, or ſhepherds of Barbary, whom he again ſuppoſes to have been *carriers* to the Troglodytes of Ethiopia. But here we are informed by the hiſtorian Manetho, that they invaded Egypt from the *Eaſt*, and that *Arabia* was the place from whence they came, whereas Mr Bruce would have us to believe that they came from the *Weſt*. Leaving this diſpute, however, we ſhall now proceed to give an account of that part of the early hiſtory of Egypt which we are undoubtedly to reckon authentic, being founded upon the infallible teſtimony of the inſpired writers themſelves.

Of the firſt foundation of the kingdom of Egypt, we have no account in ſacred writ. All that we can gather from thence is, that, as early as the days of Abraham, the kingdom was eſtabliſhed under the dominion of kings, who bore the title of Pharaoh, by which the Egyptian monarchs continued long to be diſtinguiſhed. It continued, as far we can gather from the ſame authorities, undiminiſhed in its ſplendor during the time of his ſon Iſaac; for when Joſeph was ſold by his brethern, we find Pharaoh a native prince ſitting on the throne without any rival, and the country in a flouriſhing ſtate. The irruption of the ſhepherds therefore muſt have happened before the days of Abraham; and that ſuch an irruption really did take place, we have every reaſon to believe, from the paſſage already quoted.

The hiſtory of Joſeph's being ſold into Egypt, of his preferment there, and of the deſcent of his brethern, alſo are particularly recorded in ſcripture. By the intereſt of this patriarch, however, we are told, a revolution of the utmoſt importance took place; the prince was rendered abſolute

* Gen. xlvi. 34.


Palestine
or the
HOLY LAND
A. Kincaid Del.t
J. Fraser Sculp.t
Sidon
Sarepta
Mt. Lebanon
ITHURAEA
Auran
Geßuri
Dan
Cabala
Cedeja
Tyre
Sarra
Jordan R.
Cesarea
Seleucia
Tribe of Asher
Naphtali
Galilee of the Gentiles
Hazor
Half Tribe of Manaßeh
Mt. Hermon
Canatha
Abdon
Amath
Chorazin
Bethsaida
Edrai
Segane
Gamala
Kison R.
Sicaminum
Mt. Carmel
Nazareth
Bethlehem
Mt. Tabor
Nain
Megiddo
Legio
Dora
Aphec
Endor
Tiberias
Hippos
Gaulon
Pella
Abela
Jabes
Gerasa
Magdala
Ramoth
Mahanaim
Rabba
Jabek R.
Mizpah
Succoth
Ephron
Tribe of Gad
AMMONITES
Jaser
Aenon
Mt. Gilboa
Bethsan
Half Tribe of Manaßeh
Jaramoth
Gilgal
Samaria
Salim
Sechem
Appollonia
SAMARIA
Ephraim
Saron
Joppa
Ekron
Ajalon
Gaza
Dan
Bethsemes
Ramath
Thimnata
Silo
Bethel
Lux
Thena
Drußias
Miebmas
Benjamin
Betharon
Gabaa
Ramah
Jerusalem
Ephrem
Jericho
Gilgal
Jordan R.
Beth shittim
Plains of Moab
Beth
Baara
Mennith
sihon
Heshbon
Samoth
AMORITES
Dibon
Areer
Baaliel
Bosra
Reuben
Jahaz
Maitanah
Judah
Gallim
Makeda
Eleutherus R.
MEDITERRANEAN SEA

MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Askelon
Gaza
JUDE
Ashdod
Ekron
Jabneel
Gallim
Judah
Jerusalem
Ephrem
Gilgal
Jericho
Bethel
Ai
Ramah
Gabathon
Elam
Soree R.
Negeb
Hebron
Mamre
Salim
Maghpelah
Lachish
Adar
Ziph
Enaim
W. of Ziph
Ethan
Engeddi
Eshcol R.
Maon
Carmel
Zoar
Besor R.
Beersheba
Arad
Aroer
Dibon
Oholiel
Bosra
Reuben
Lasha
Jahaz
Maitanah
Luith
Almon dib lathaim
Carieth
Beer
Dibon Gad
Zared R.
Jim
Jeabarim
Oboth
Teman
Rithrah
Libnah
Duma
Antipatris
Raphea
Cadesh barnea
Gerara
Sichor R.
Sin
Elusa
Rimmon parex
Ebeda
Rithmah
Kibroth hattaavah
Wilderness of Zur
Land of Goshen
EGYPT
Succoth
Etham
Raamses
Desart of Etham
Marah
Elim
Dophkah
Alush
Rephidim
Mt. Sinai
Mt. Horeb
Moseroth
Pihahiroth
Migdol
Elath
Phara
Benej aakan
Ezion gaber
Midian
Plain of Amalekites
RED SEA
MIDIANITES
WILD of PARAN
I. DESERT
Rehelathah
Mt. Seir
Paran
Shapher
Haradah
Makheloth
Tahath
Mithah
Ebronah
Hasmonah
Mt. Hor
Zalmona
Encamp.t in y.e Wild. of Zin
Encamp.t near Exion-gaber
Horhagidgad
Jotbatha
W. of Zin
ELATH & EZION-GABER
MOABITES
L. ASPHALTITES or DEAD SEA
Degrees East from London

abſolute proprietor of the whole country, and the people reduced to a ſtate of the moſt complete ſervitude, which appears to have continued ever after. As long as he lived, the Iſraelites ſeem to have been highly reſpected, and no doubt enjoyed many and great privileges, but after his death, the Egyptians, alarmed at their exceſſive increaſe in numbers, reſolved to provide (as they thought) for their own ſafety, by ſubjugating theſe ſtrangers. They began by reducing them to ſlavery, and obliging them to ſubmit to the moſt grievous kind of it; but at laſt, finding, that notwithſtanding the intolerable bondage in which they were kept, they increaſed the more in number, it was reſolved to take more effectual methods. The king, therefore, ſending for the two principal midwives, ſtrictly commanded them, that when they performed their office to the Iſraelitiſh women, they ſhould kill all the male children, but ſave the females alive. This cruel command was diſobeyed, on which another, nothing inferior to it, was iſſued, that every male child of the Hebrews ſhould be caſt into the river; but that the females ſhould be allowed to live.

As this laſt command threatened the inevitable deſtruction of the choſen people of God, he thought proper immediately to interpoſe in their behalf. Moſes was raiſed up to be their deliverer. His preſervation in the ark of bulruſhes, and his being adopted the ſon of Pharaoh's daughter, are well known from ſcripture hiſtory. From the very firſt, at leaſt from the time he attained the years of maturity, he ſeems to have had a thorough conviction that he was the perſon appointed by Divine Providence to deliver his countrymen. In what manner this came into his mind, whether by immediate revelation to himſelf, or by a conſideration of the Divine records extant at that time, is unknown; but that the fact was thus, is certain from ſome paſſages in the New Teſtament. His firſt hopes, however, were diſappointed; for, having obſerved an Egyptian maltreating an Iſraelite, he killed the former, and buried him in the ſand; but next day attempting to compoſe a difference betwixt two Hebrews, he found them ſo little inclined to ſubmit to his arbitration, that the aggreſſor reproached him with the murder of the Egyptian. By this he was alarmed, and not without reaſon; for the affair having, as Moſes juſtly ſuſpected, become public, Pharaoh determined to put him to death; ſo that he was conſtrained to fly to Midian, where he employed himſelf for ſome time as a ſhepherd, keeping the flock of Jethro, the prieſt of that country; who, in return for his ſervices, gave him his daughter Zipporah in marriage.

In the mean time, the oppreſſion of the Iſraelites went on as uſual; and having already rejected the perſon whom God had appointed for their deliverer, there ſeemed to be no more hope, at leaſt in a natural way. The Deity therefore immediately interpoſed his miraculous power. Having manifeſted himſelf to Moſes in an extraordinary manner in the burning buſh, he gave him a direct commiſſion to demand liberty for the Iſraelites from their imperious taſk-maſter. Moſes did not comply with this till he had made all the excuſes he could invent, and Aaron his brother was joined in the commiſſion with him.

On the arrival of the two brothers in the land of Egypt, they aſſembled the elders of the people, communicating to them the joyful news of their approaching deliverance. Theſe were received at firſt with the greateſt joy, as they expected nothing but to be ſet at liberty by ſome extraordinary miracle. However, the event did not at firſt anſwer their ex-

pectations. Pharaoh being preſſed to let the people go, inſtead of complying with the demand, added to their oppreſſion, and the people inveighed againſt Moſes and Aaron for intermedling in any manner of way in their affairs, as it had turned out ſo much to their prejudice. Moſes, having ſupplicated the Deity on this occaſion, was enabled by him to bring ſuch ſignal and extraordinary plagues upon the Egyptians, as were ſufficient to convince the moſt incredulous that he had really been endowed with the commiſſion he had announced to them: nevertheleſs ſuch was the hardneſs of heart both of the Egyptians and Iſraelites, that in all probability neither the one or the other believed him; nor is it likely that the latter would have quitted their ſtate of bondage, if they had not been driven out by the Egyptians, on finding themſelves in danger of being totally deſtroyed. In a ſhort time, however, they recovered from this terror, and the king having aſſembled a vaſt army, purſued after the people. Coming up with them near the Red Sea, the Iſraelites were thrown into the utmoſt conſternation; but inſtead of putting their confidence in the Deity, or applying for relief to him, they fell to upbraiding Moſes for having brought them out of Egypt. A new miracle was wrought to extricate them from this danger; the ſea parted, and they went through upon dry ground *, while the Egyptians eagerly purſuing them, were totally overwhelmed by the return of the waters, ſo that not a ſingle perſon eſcaped.

For ſome little time this extraordinary inſtance of the Divine favour had a remarkable effect upon them, but on every occaſion their rebellious ſpirit broke forth afreſh. Scarce had they travelled three days in the wilderneſs, when, finding themſelves in want of water, they fell to murmuring againſt Moſes, as if he had done them an injury by reſcuing them from the horrid bondage in which they were involved in Egypt. Their diſſatisfaction for the preſent was appeaſed by ſweetening the bitter waters at Marah †; but in a ſhort time proviſions becoming ſcarce, they murmured more violently than ever; repenting that they had ſuffered themſelves to be decoyed, by the pretences of Moſes, into the wilderneſs, where they had no proſpect but of dying for hunger ‡. The Deity, however, once more interpoſed, and that in ſuch a manner as aſtoniſhed even Moſes himſelf. Such immenſe flights of quails appeared as entirely covered their camp, and at the ſame time they had a kind of food, named *Manna*, ſent down from heaven, which ſerved them inſtead of bread §. Still, however, their rebellious and murmuring diſpoſition continued; for, coming to Rephidim, where there was no water, they again fell to threatening Moſes in the moſt inſolent and tumultuous manner. To ſatisfy them, at laſt, God commanded Moſes to ſtrike, with his rod, a certain rock at the ſide of Mount Horeb; which he had no ſooner done, than water guſhed out in abundance at ſeveral places, and, joining in one common ſtream, ran down to the camp at Rephidim. This laſt mutiny was ſo extravagant, and their diſtruſt of God ſo glaring, that the place received the name of *Maſſah* and *Meribah* ‖, which ſignifiy temptation and contention.

The Iſraelites were now, for the firſt time, alarmed at the approach of a foreign enemy, viz. the Amalekites, but ſeem to have been under very little apprehenſion from them. They were defeated under the conduct

* Exod. xiv. 22. † Exod. xv 23.——25. ‡ Exod. xvi. 2. 3. § Exod. xvi. 15.
‖ Exod. xvii. 11.

conduct of Joſhua, but in ſuch a manner as might eaſily have ſhowed the Iſraelites it was not all owing to their ſuperior valour. Moſes, who went up to the top of mount Horeb to view the battle, held up his hands, and by this the fate of the engagement was decided; for when he held up his hands, the Iſraelites prevailed, but when he let them hang down, the Amalekites had the better *. It being impoſſible for him to continue all day long in ſuch an uneaſy poſture, Aaron and Hur, who were with him, ſupported his hands till evening, and thus the Iſraelites obtained a complete victory.

The next remarkable tranſaction, with reſpect to the Iſraelites, was the giving of the law at Mount Sinai; which was done by ſuch an aſſemblage of thick clouds, thunder, lightning, and every terrible indication of the divine preſence, as never appeared ſince the creation of the world †. Yet, notwithſtanding the terror which this awful ſight for a ſhort time occaſioned, the ſtubborn and rebellious ſpirit of the Iſraelites was by no means ſubdued. They had not reſided long in the neighbourhood of Sinai, however, when Moſes was called up into the immediate preſence of God, in order to receive particular directions concerning the tabernacle and ceremonies of the Jewiſh worſhip. Here he ſtaid for no leſs a time than ſix weeks; during which ſpace, the people, imagining that he was not to return, determined to go back to Egypt; and at the ſame time, unmindful of the many favours they had already received from the true deity, reſolved to have a god of their own to conduct them thither. This could not be procured without making an image, which was accordingly fabricated by Aaron during his brother's abſence. This idol, we are told, was an image of a calf, probably a reſemblance of the ſacred bull of the Egyptians, before which they inſtantly made a feſtival, and began their rejoicings, probably attended with ſome of the infamous and obſcene rites common among the Heathens in their religious worſhip. But, in the mean time, Moſes, having received from God the two tables of the law, was coming down from the mountain with his ſervant Joſhua. As he drew near the camp, the latter was ſurpriſed with the noiſe made by the people; but Moſes, who had received previous notice from God, on ſeeing what they were about, was filled with ſuch indignation that he threw the tables from him, and broke them in pieces. The idol he deſtroyed, though made of the moſt precious metal; and, by ſome method unknown to us, reduced it entirely to powder, which was mingled with the water of which the people drank ‡. As for the idolaters, 3000 of them were killed in one day by the Levites, and the deity beſides deſtroyed many more by the plagues he ſent among them. All this, however, was not ſufficient to convert that obſtinate and rebellious race. They had not gone three days journey from Sinai, when they began to complain of the length and tedioufneſs of their journey, in ſuch a manner, as provoked God to deſtroy many of them by fire §. This ceaſed on the interceſſion of Moſes; but no ſooner was one danger paſt, than they inſtantly brought another upon themſelves. They were now weary of the manna, which God had ſo graciouſly provided for them, and demanded a new ſupply of fleſh, regretting their having left Egypt, in ſuch inſolent terms, that a grievous plague was ſent among them, of which vaſt numbers died ‖.

But

* Exod. xvii. 11. † Exod. xix. 16,—21. ‡ Exod. xxxii. 20.
§ Numb. xi. 1, 2, 3. ‖ Numb. x. 4. to the end.

But the greateſt offence of all was, that when arrived at the borders of the land of Canaan, twelve men being choſen to take a view of the country, ten of them gave ſuch repreſentations of the ſtrength of the cities, and the gigantic ſize of the inhabitants, as quite diſpirited the people, and they abſolutely refuſed to proceed. Joſhua and Caleb only oppoſed this daſtardly behaviour, and endeavoured to encourage their countrymen to go on; but it was to no purpoſe; for their diſcontent and deſpair grew to ſuch an height, that they began to deliberate about a proper perſon to reconduct them to Egypt. By this horrid ingratitude, the deity was ſo much offended, that he made an unalterable decree, that not one of the aſſembly living at that time, who was above 20 years of age, ſhould enter into the land of Canaan, but that they ſhould wander in the wilderneſs 40 years, and within that ſpace ſhould all die except Joſhua and Caleb. During this long time the Divine Providence watched over them in a moſt remarkable manner. The miraculous pillar of cloud, which had hitherto conducted them, ſtill continued to direct their ſteps; the manna continued as uſual to deſcend from heaven; and that nothing might be wanting which could contribute to their eaſe and convenience, their clothes did not wear out, nor were their feet hurt with the length and tedioufneſs of their journey. Their obſtinate and rebellious diſpoſition, however, ſtill continued, tho' the puniſhment always followed with ſuch certainty, and ſo quick upon the back of every ſedition, that one would have thought it impoſſible for any ſet of people to have entertained the ſmalleſt doubt of their being immediately under the direction of an Omnipotent and Omniſcient Being. It is not conſiſtent with our plan, nor does it belong to this place, to trace the Iſraelites farther than through the wilderneſs; nevertheleſs, to gratify the curioſity of our readers, and ſave them the trouble of meaſuring them on the map, we have ſubjoined a table of the diſtance of the places the Iſraelites paſſed through, and likewiſe of the moſt remarkable towns, &c. in Paleſtine from Jeruſalem.

Hebron, 23 m. ſouth.	Beerſheba, 68 m. S. W.
Zoar, 64 m. S. by E.	Hor Mount, 123 m. S. by E.
Mount Sinai, 160 m. S. S. W.	Aſkelon, 52 m. S. W.
Jericho, 24 m. E.	Gaza, 56 m. S. W.
Heſhbon, 52 m. E. by N.	Ramah, 10 m. W.
Sihon, 65 m. N. N. E.	Ephrem, 15 m. E.
Ramoth, 75 m. N. E.	Sechem, 33 m. N. E.
Tyre, 123 m. N.	Salim, 47 m. N. E.
Sidon, 145 m. N.	Geneſareth Lake, 70 m. N. E.
Joppa, 40 m. N. W.	Nazareth, 68 m. N. by E.
Ekron, 38 m. W. by N.	Ajalon, 38 m. W. by N.
Aſhdod, 44 m. W. by S.	Engeddi, 47 m. S. by E.
Gilgal, 30 m. N. by W.	Ramoth, 75 m. N. E.
Gilboa Mount, 47 m. N. by E.	Jeſreel, 58 m. N. by E.
Tabor Mount, 72 m. N. by E.	Samaria, 36 m. N. by E.
Dan, 132 m. N. by E.	Cadeſh-Barnea, 67 m. S. by W.

We muſt now return to the Egyptians, whom we left almoſt entirely ruined by the grievous plagues they had ſuffered, and the loſs of a vaſt army in the Red Sea. For a long time, however, we have nothing authentic concerning them; only we know, that in the time of Solomon, the

the kingdom was in a flouriſhing ſituation, and very powerful. After his death we find one *Shiſhak* ſitting on the throne of Egypt, who came up againſt Jeruſalem, and plundered it. According to Sir Iſaac Newton, this was the monarch ſo much celebrated by profane hiſtorians under the names of *Seſoſtris*, *Sethoſis*, &c. and whom they place in a moſt extravagantly remote period of antiquity. This, however, is controverted by others; and indeed till the time of Pſammiticus, the hiſtory of Egypt is ſo involved in fable, that no dependence can be put upon it. Before his acceſſion the kingdom had been divided into twelve parts, over which as many governors preſided; but Pſammiticus having dethroned all the reſt, became ſovereign of the whole country. He endeavoured to extend his dominions by conqueſt, but with very indifferent ſucceſs; and, by ſeeming to put more confidence in foreign troops than in his own ſubjects, he diſpleaſed the latter to ſuch a degree, that 200,000 of them left Egypt altogether, and ſettled in Ethiopia. His ſon, called by the Greeks *Nechus*, and in ſcripture *Pharaoh Necho*, was of an enterpriſing and martial genius, as well as an encourager of commerce. He overcame and killed Joſiah king of Jeruſalem, who withſtood him in his expedition againſt Aſſyria, but was himſelf overthrown with incredible ſlaughter by Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon. His ſucceſſor Apries, the Pharaoh Hophra of ſcripture, ſucceeded ſtill worſe; for, having formed an alliance with Zedekiah king of Jeruſalem againſt Nebuchadnezzar, the latter overthrew his army with ſuch ſlaughter, that the Egyptians revolted, and Apries being defeated alſo by the rebels, was taken and put to death. After this the country was ravaged for ſome time, though not totally ſubdued, by the Babylonians; and not long after was conquered by Cambyſes king of Perſia. On the deſtruction of the Perſian empire by Alexander the Great, it became a province of his empire; but after his death was erected into an independent kingdom by Ptolemy Lagus, one of Alexander's generals. Under Ptolemy and his ſucceſſors the country became the ſeat of arts and learning. A moſt noble library was erected at Alexandria, which, by continual additions and collections of the Egyptian princes, at laſt arrived at ſuch an immenſe magnitude, as to contain 700,000 volumes. Nor were theſe monarchs deficient in the art of war; Ptolemy Euregetes, particularly, extended his dominion over a great part of the eaſt; but many of the others were cruel and deſtructive tyrants. At laſt this kingdom ſhared the common fate of others, and fell under the power of the Romans, being reduced to a province of their empire by Auguſtus.

On the decline of the weſtern part of that empire, Egypt remained ſubject to the emperors of Conſtantinople, from whom it was taken by the khalif Omar's general. On the decline of the Saracen empire, Egypt was governed by its own ſultans, of whom the famous Saladine, ſo remarkable for his bravery and ſucceſs againſt the Cruſaders, was one. After his death, to the year 1250, the hiſtory of Egypt affords nothing remarkable; but in that year it became ſubject to the *Mamelucs*, or *Mamlouks*, a kind of mercenary ſoldiers whom the Egyptian ſovereigns had taken into their pay. Theſe were originally Turks, or Tartars, whom the merchants bought as ſlaves from the nations inhabiting the foot of Mount Caucaſus. By them they were ſold to the ſultan, who had them educated at his expence, and employed them to defend the maritime places of the kingdom. The reaſon of employing theſe ſoldiers at firſt was, that the native Egyptians were become ſo cowardly, effeminate,

and

and treacherous, that no dependence could be put upon them; while, on the other hand, the Mamelucs made excellent ſoldiers. Unhappily, however, the ſultan being thus in the power of theſe mercenaries, became liable to be pulled down by them at pleaſure, and they at laſt aſſumed the government openly, as has been already related. Their government, was of no long duration; for, finding it neceſſary to have a conſiderable ſtanding army always employed, they were under a neceſſity of purchaſing other ſlaves, in a manner ſimilar to the way they themſelves had been treated. This new race of ſlaves were named *Borgites*, from the word *Borge*, which in their language ſignifies a fort. In a ſhort time the Borgites aſſumed the authority over the Mamelucs, as the latter had formerly done over their maſters. Their dominion laſted till the year 1517, when the country was conquered by Selim the Turkiſh ſultan, who behaved with the utmoſt cruelty, cauſing no fewer than 30,000 of the inhabitants to be beheaded in one day, and their bodies to be thrown into the Nile. Great numbers of the inhabitants, terrified by this cruelty, fled to the deſarts, under one Zinganeus, from whence they infeſted ſuch towns and villages as were next to them; and Selim, finding that it would be a difficult matter to exterminate them, at laſt granted them leave to retire into other countries, which they accordingly did, and have ever ſince wandered all over Europe under the name of *Gypſies*.

Notwithſtanding the terrible maſſacre juſt mentioned, however, Selim did not think proper to exterminate the Mamelucs (for the Borgites had likewiſe aſſumed this name) entirely. Inſtead of this, he came to an agreement with them, and even allowed them to retain the principal ſhare of the government. By the negligence and inattention of the Porte, however, they are now in a great meaſure independent; and as the government is divided among 24 Beys, with one ſtiled *Sheikh Bellet* at their head, the whole country is oppreſſed in the moſt terrible manner by their extortions and contentions with one another. During the late war between the Turks and Ruſſians, one Ali Bey, a man of ſome abilities, having been raiſed to the ſupreme government of Egypt, formed a deſign of throwing off all dependence on the Porte; and even of making ſome foreign conqueſts. In this he was at firſt ſucceſsful; invading and conquering Syria, where a rebellion at that time exiſted under one Sheik Daher; but at laſt every thing was ruined by the impatience of Ali Bey, who was wounded, taken priſoner, and ſoon after died. He was ſucceeded by his brother-in-law Mohammed Bey Abondahab, who had by treachery deprived him of his life, and who immediately declared war againſt Sheik Daher. In this expedition he behaved with great cruelty, though he was at laſt likely to prove ſucceſsful, but died before his enterpriſe could be accompliſhed. Sheik Daher therefore continued his oppoſition to the Porte, till he was at laſt defeated by the Turkiſh vizir; who, having got him by treachery into his power, cut off his head, and ſent it to Conſtantinople. Since that time we hear of no remarkable occurrences in Egypt. The inhabitants groan under the oppreſſion of the petty tyrants, called Beys, who govern them; and being enſlaved by ignorance and ſuperſtition, deſtitute of genius or courage, have neither ſtrength nor ſpirit to extricate themſelves from that miſerable ſtate of bondage in which they are involved.

STATES OF BARBARY.

THESE are, 1. The empire of Morocco. 2. Algiers. 3. Tunis. 4. Tripoli and Barca.

Extent, Situation, &c. The empire of Morocco, formed by the union of ſeveral ſmall kingdoms, extends from 28 degrees to 36 north latitude; its length, according to M. Chenier, being about 600 miles; and its breadth where greateſt, about 500. On the north it is bounded by the Straits of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean; on the ſouth by the deſart of Zahara; on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean; and on the eaſt by the kingdoms of Tremecen and Bildulgerid.

Algiers is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth by Mount Atlas; on the weſt by Tafilet, and on the eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis; extending in length, 480 miles from eaſt to weſt along the coaſt of the Mediteranean, and in breadth from 40 to 100.

Tunis has the Mediterranean on the north and eaſt; Algiers on the weſt; and Tripoli, with part of Bildulgerid, on the ſouth. Its length from north to ſouth is about 220 miles, and its breadth from eaſt to weſt 170.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediteranean; on the ſouth by the country of the Berebers; on the weſt by the kingdoms of Tunis and Bildulgerid; and on the eaſt by Egypt; lying along the coaſt for about 1100 miles in length, and from 100 to 300 in breadth.

Air, Soil, and Produce. Theſe are ſo much alike, that the account given by M. Chenier of the empire of Morocco, may ſerve for the whole. With regard to this empire, the air is by no means ſo hot as its ſituation would lead us to ſuppoſe, being rendered temperate in paſſing over the mountaies of Atlas, which are generally covered with ſnow. On the weſt ſide alſo, where the empire is bounded by the ocean, the weather is rendered temperate by the cooling breezes which blow from the water, and commonly do ſo with great regularity. In the inland parts, however, the heats in ſummer are generally very conſiderable, and the rivulets then dry up; though this is in ſome meaſure compenſated by the quantity of dew which falls in the night time. The rains are likewiſe regular, and fall in quantities ſufficient to fertilize the earth. All fruits are remarkably forward in this country, inſomuch, that the vintage is ſometimes over in the beginning of September; and our author informs as that he has even eat grapes tolerably ripe on the 30th of May. Even in January the ground is covered with verdure, barley is ducut in March, and the wheat is reaped in June. The winters in general are not ſevere, nor is there an abſolute occaſion for a fire, and the equality of the climate is much greater than in the northern countries. The ſoil in general is exceedingly fertile; light and ſandy on the weſt coaſt, and better adapted for producing vines and olives than corn. In the inland parts its fertility is almoſt incredible; an ordinary year producing 30 fold, and a plentiful one not leſs than 60. All the manure it receives is only by burning the ſtubble before the rains which happen in September, and the dung of the cattle which are daily turned out to paſture. So little labour is required to make this ſoil productive, that

the furrows are not more than ſix inches deep, and in ſome provinces wooden plough-ſhares are uſed for cheapneſs. Fruits of all kinds are to be met with in this country; but the indolence of the Moors renders them leſs valuable than otherwiſe they would be. One fruit peculiar to the place is found in great plenty in the empire of Morocco, viz the Barbary fig, or prickly pear. It is planted round vineyards and gardens, on account of its thick and thorny leaves, which form impenetrable hedges. From theſe leaves a fruit is produced, covered with thorny ſkin, which muſt be carefully taken off. The fruit itſelf is mild and has very hard kernels. The arga tree is alſo thorny, irregular in its ſhape, and produces a ſpecies of almond exceſſively hard, divided into two, and from which an oil of excellent uſe for frying meat may be obtained; though before it can be employed for this purpoſe it is always neceſſary to ſet it on fire, in order to conſume the corroſive part it contains. Here is alſo the tree from which gum ſandarac exſudes, and another ſpecies called by our author the *Tranſparent* gum; but the latter is produced in greateſt quantity, and likewiſe of the beſt ſort, in the ſouthern parts. Here alſo the palm-tree grows in great abundance; but dates ripen with difficulty, and there are few good except in the province of Suez, and towards the kingdom of Tafilet, where they are ſtill better, on account of its diſtance from the ſea. On the coaſts of Salle and Mamora, there are oak foreſts, producing acorns near two inches long. Theſe taſte like cheſnuts, and are eat either roaſted or raw. The doum, fan, or wild palm tree, is one of the moſt uſeful vegetables in this country. Its leaves are gathered for the purpoſe of making mats, fringes, hats, baſkets, &c. and it likewiſe furniſhes materials for twine, ropes, and girths for their pack-ſaddles. Its wood is uſed for fuel, and it has a mild and reſinous fruit of a very aſtringent nature, and proper to counteract the relaxing effects of the heat of the climate. It is not known what metals may be met with in Morocco, though it is not improbable that the mountains of Atlas contain mines of ſeveral kinds. There are iron mines in the ſouth, but the working of them has been given up on account of the expence attending it.

Animals. The inhabitants of this empire being generally ſhepherds by profeſſion, have great flocks of ſheep, as well as of black cattle. The wool of their ſheep is generally very good, and would be much better if proper care were taken to improve the breed. There are very few black ones among them. The oxen are but ſmall, though very numerous; and it is from Morocco that the garriſon of Gibralter are ſupplied. They drive a conſiderable trade, in the hides of theſe animals, with Marſeilles. The camel is alſo produced here, and is of a ſtrength ſufficient to carry ſix or eight hundred weight, but his trot is almoſt inſupportable by thoſe who are not accuſtomed to it. The natives eat the fleſh of this animal, which is inſipid, and gives a white and diſagreeable tincture to the broth made of it. The milk is wholeſome, and thought to be good in conſumptions. The horſes are generally good, and capable of bearing much fatigue; but it is rare to meet with a beautiful one among them. They are broken while very young, and generally ill treated. In the ſouthern parts, however, the people are at a little more pains, and the horſes are ſuperior to thoſe in the other provinces. Some late travellers have remarked, that the mares of Barbary do not neigh, though it is not certain whether this obſervation can be depended upon.

upon. Theſe mares and their colts are accuſtomed to enter the tents of the Moors in the evening, and lie down among the children, whom they are very careful not to hurt as they turn in the night. Mules are alſo much in uſe here, and the breed is good, as the exportation of them ted by government. They are ſtronger than horſes, and are uſed for all the common purpoſes.

The roebuck, antelope, fallow deer, and fox, are to to be met with in Morocco, but in no great numbers, on account of the depredations of the hunter, as well as of beaſts of prey. Of theſe the lion and leopard are not uncommon; the latter being by the Moors dignified with the name of the tiger. They uſually watch theſe creatures in the tops of trees for their greater ſecurity; ſhooting them when they ſee them paſs; but as the leopard can climb up trees with great agility, they are obliged to carry hatchets along with them to reſiſt his attacks. Sometimes they take lions alive, which is done by the following method. Having dug deep ditches, they cover them over with reeds, having leaves ſcattered upon them, and over all they put pieces of raw meat, by which the lion, being induced to approach too near, falls into the ditch, where he is caught in nooſes or ſnares. Sometimes they are caught in large wooden traps, which cloſe upon them as they are ſtepping along. When taken in this manner, they are kept by the emperor in very large and deep ditches, as well for ſtate as for ſending by way of preſent to ſeveral of the European ſovereigns. They are fed by Jews, who go up and down their ditches without any fear, governing theſe ferocious animals by means of a ſwitch. It ſeems indeed that their ferocity is augmented by confinement; for in this, and many other countries of Africa, the lions will not attack men, provided the latter do not run from him, at leaſt not unleſs they be pinched with hunger. In catching wild boars the lion ſhews a conſiderable degree of cunning. Theſe creatures are more common than any of the ferocious wild beaſts, and in a particular manner ſerve the lion for food. When the latter diſcovers the retreat of the ſow with her litter of pigs, he drags himſelf with his belly upon the ground, deſcribing a large circle, out of which he leaves only a very ſmall outlet, and lies in wait near the place. The ſow, wiſhing to get away with her young, follows the circle which the lion has deſcribed, but does not paſs it on account of the ſmell. At laſt coming near the opening where ſhe finds no ſmell, ſhe ruſhes haſtily forward, and is inſtantly ſeized by her enemy. Sometimes there have been examples of lions being ripped up with the tuſks of boars whom they have attacked. Poultry abounds throughout this empire, but is generally of an indifferent quality; however, the pigeons are fine, and ſome of them very large. The patridges are inſipid; woodcocks very rare; but they have plenty of ſnipes, and the hares are generally good: Rabbits are not met with except in the northern part of the empire. The ſeas and bays abound with excellent fiſh.

Inhabitants, Manners, &c. The Moors, as the preſent inhabitants of Morocco are called, are a mixture of the Arabs and Africans, divided into tribes, who entertain an hereditary averſion to one another, and ſeldom intermarry. The *Brebes*, who inhabit the mountainous parts, are the moſt ferocious, paying little regard to the commands of the emperor, who, they know cannot reduce them on account of the difficulty of their country. They are diſtinguiſhed from the other tribes by their vigour of body, and employ themſelves much in hunting lions

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and other wild beaſts. On the ſouthern frontiers of the empire are a people named *Shellu* who though they have the ſame language with the Brebes, are much leſs ferocious. Of the others, ſome live in tents, and the reſt in cities. The former chooſe new places of encampment every year, for the conveniency of paſturage. Their tents are of a conical ſhape, and ſeldom more than 8 or 10 feet high in the centre, and from 20 to 25 feet in length; their ſhape being that of a ſhip with its keel uppermoſt. They are conſtructed of twine, made of goats hair, camels wool, and the leaves of the wild palm, ſo that they keep out water; but their black colour renders their appearance very diſagreeable at a diſtance. Their common food is what they call Cooſcooſoo; a kind of paſte made of flour, and made up of ſmall grains in the manner of Italian paſtes. This cooſcooſoo is dreſſed, by putting it in a diſh, whoſe bottom is full of holes, over the ſteam of boiling meat, by which it is ſoftened, and becomes very agreeable. Their dreſs is a piece of woollen cloth, about 10 feet long, and three feet wide, wrapped about them without either milling, dreſſing, or dyeing. The dreſs of the women conſiſts of one of theſe pieces tied round their waiſts, the folds of which cover the neck and ſhoulders, and are faſtened by ſilver claſps. They are very fond of large earrings, made in the ſhape of a creſcent, or ſilver rings, with bracelets for the ancles. They wear alſo necklaces of ſmall glaſs beads, coloured, or grains of clove ſpice ſtrung upon a ſilk thread. They take great pains to paint their face, neck, and almoſt the whole of their body, with the repreſentations of flowers and other ornaments. Theſe are made with models, having the points of needles in them, by which the ſkin is ſlightly raiſed, and pulveriſed gun powder, or ſome blue powder introduced, by which the ſtain is rendered indelible. Some of them have on their forehead, or their chin, a croſs impearled at the four ends, or the repreſentation of a croſs pendent from a chain, the figure of which, traced round the neck, deſcends on the breaſt. M. Chenier is of opinion that theſe are ſome of the deſcendents of theſe Mooriſh tribes who became ſubject to the Chriſtians of Africa, and to avoid paying taxes, imprinted theſe marks on their bodies to make the conquerors believe that they were Chriſtians. The women every where ſtain their hair, feet, and ends of their fingers with an herb called *Henna*, which produces a deep ſaffron colour. The ignorance of theſe people, according to our author, is inconceivable. "I have ſeen, ſays he, one waiting for his diſpatches in a room where there was a looking-glaſs; and his eye being caught by his own reflected figure, he imagined it was another courier waiting for diſpatches in the next apartment. Having aſked to what place that courtier was going, and being told "to Mogodor," "O then ſaid he, we will travel together." He made the propoſition to his ſuppoſed comrade, but receiving no anſwer, he began to be angry, till he ſaw another perſon who entered the room, reflected by the ſame glaſs. In a houſe where I lodged at Saffi, there came two mountaineers, whoſe curioſity led them to examine Europeans in their own apartments. After having gone over the whole houſe, they knew not how to deſcend the ſtairs they had come up. At laſt they ſat themſelves down on the firſt ſtep, and then, ſupported by their hands and feet, they ſhuffled from one to the other. Not one among theſe people are at firſt ſuſceptible of receiving ideas from drawings or paintings: They only perceive a confuſion of colours in a picture without order or deſign, and in engravings a mixture of lines. In this they reſemble a blind man immediately reſtored

to ſight, who ſhould be ſhewn a picture immediately after the operation of the cataract." The Moors who live in cities are ſomewhat more civilizied; and they are particulary diſtinguiſhed in their dreſs by wearing a ſhirt, linen drawers, and an upper garment of cotton in ſummer, and of cloth in winter, which they call a *caſtan*. They alſo wear hoods of a dark blue colour, and theſe are a part of the dreſs of ceremony, without which, along with a ſabre, and a kind of dagger about a foot long, and two inches broad, the people of faſhion never appear before the emperor. The country women go unveiled; but it is otherwiſe with thoſe who dwell in cities; for theſe are ſo muffled up, that even their huſbands do not know them in the ſtreets.

With regard to the population of Morocco, little can be ſaid. M. Chenier is of opinion that it does not exceed *ſix millions*, a number by no means proportionable to its extent. The city of Algiers is ſaid to contain 100,000 inhabitants of the Mahometan profeſſion, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves. We can ſay nothiug with regard to the population of its territory, though ſome travellers have aſſerted that it is inhabited by a polite and hoſpitable people, very different in behaviour from thoſe who inhabit the capital. But of all the inhabitants of Barbary, thoſe who dwell in the city of Tunis are the moſt civilized; inſomuch, that in ſome reſpects they are worthy of being imitated by the moſt polite nations of Europe. Tripoli was formerly a place of great conſequence, but is now reduced; however, it ſtill has 4 or 500,000 inhabitants, but their character is very indifferent.

Religion. This is Mohammedaniſm of the moſt abſurd kind, concerning which it is needleſs to enter into any diſcuſſion.

Language. In ſome of the internal parts of Morocco the old African language is ſtill ſpoken; but on the ſea coaſts a corrupt dialect of the Arabic is uſed, as well as that medley of Spaniſh, French, Italian, &c. commonly known by the name of Lingua Franca.

Antiquities and Curioſities. The inacceſſible nature of theſe countries, renders our account of theſe much ſhorter than it would probably have otherwiſe been. It is not to be ſuppoſed but many marks of the ancient Roman and Saracen greatneſs ſtill remain, though it is in a manner impoſſible for any European to have an opportunity of exploring them. Some of the aqueducts of ancient Carthage are ſaid to be ſtill remaining, though no veſtiges of its walls are now to be ſeen. Throughout the country there are many remains of theatres, amphitheatres, and other magnificent buildings; but ſuch is the barbariſm with which the country is overrun, that the very cities to which they belonged are not known. Dr Shaw mentions ſome very hot ſprings, by which a piece of mutton may be boiled very tender in a quarter of an hour. There are alſo ſalt pits, or rather lakes, ſome of them ſix miles in diameter, where ſalt is naturally produced by the heat of the ſun. Others produce the mineral alkali like thoſe of Egypt.

Chief Cities, &c. Morocco, the capital of the whole empire, ſtands about 60 miles from the ſea, and at a little diſtance from Mount Atlas. Its walls are very thick, and are compoſed of a cement formed of lime and ſand, put into caſes, and beaten with rammers, which, if well made, becomes as hard as a ſtone with age. From the extent of theſe, the city might be ſuppoſed capable of containing 300,000 inhabitants, but it is now little better than a deſart, by reaſon of the devaſtations which have taken place from contending factions. M. Chenier is of opinion, that,

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even when the court is there, it has not above 30,000 inhabitants. It has ſeveral large moſques, though none of them are remarkable for their magnificence. The emperor's palace is an extenſive and ſubſtantial building, the principal gates being Gothic arches of hewn ſtone, embelliſhed with ornaments in the Arabian taſte. Within the walls are ſeveral courts, with gardens elegantly laid out by European gardeners. In each of theſe is a pavilion to which the emperor frequently retires for his amuſement. Theſe are ſquare pyramids, about 40 feet long, but ſomewhat leſs in height, and covered with varniſhed tiles of different colours. The inſide is a kind of ſpacious hall, receiving light and air from four large doors, which open in ſuch a manner as to produce an agreeable coolneſs according to the poſition of the ſun. The pavilion, containing the apartments of the women, is a ſpacious building in one of the gardens; but none of them are in any way remarkable for their ſplendid furniture. In this city are alſo a number of large incloſed ſpaces, almoſt entirely detached, containing gardens of orange trees, and pavilions in which the princes lodge. Theſe, being covered with coloured tiles, are the more remarkable, as the gaiety and ſplendor of their appearance form a ſtriking contraſt with the wretchedneſs and poverty of the ſurrounding buildings. The *Elcaiſſerea* is a place where ſtuffs and other merchandiſe are expoſed to ſale, and is of the ſame nature with thoſe places called *Bezeſteins* in Turkey, but is by no means equal to them in appearance. In the neighbourhood of the palace is the quarter of the Jews, incloſed by walls, where theſe people reſide, under the guard of an alcaid to protect them from inſults. Formerly there were above 3000 Jewiſh families here, but they are now reduced to about 200, the reſt having been driven out of the city by the oppreſſion they ſuffered.

Fez, the capital of the kingdom of that name, is ſituated at the bottom of a valley. The upper part of this valley is divided into gardens, planted with orange and other trees, and well watered by a river which runs through it, ſo that the proſpect is exceedingly delightful. It is, however, a place of no ſtrength, and incapable of making any defence. It is divided into the Old and New Towns; in the former of which are ſome palaces belonging to the emperor, the latter is inhabited by Jews who trade with the Old Town, notwithſtanding the contempt and inſults to which they are expoſed. At a ſmall diſtance is a valley where the river Raſalema, which waters the city, takes its riſe. It iſſues from a rock eight or 10 feet high, in a ſtream containing about three cubic feet, and which, by reaſon of the ſhortneſs of its courſe to the city, can never overflow in ſuch a manner as to do any damage. Juſt above the walls there is a water wheel 24 feet in diameter, which, by means of buckets placed upon it, raiſes as much water as ſupplies the purpoſes of the inhabitants, and is ſufficient to water the gardens.

Mequinez is ſituated at the extremity of the province of Beni-Haſſen, about 240 miles north of Morocco, and is ſurrounded by vallies and eminences in a high ſtate of cultivation, ornamented with gardens and plantations of olive trees, and watered by a variety of ſtreams, ſo that the fruits they produce are excellent in their quality. It is ſurrounded with walls; and the palace is defended by two baſtions, on which were formerly ſome artillery. In this city, as well as in Morocco, there is a quarter appointed for the reſidence of the Jews, who are here richer and more numerous than in Morocco; and the houſes are likewiſe hand-

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ſomer than in other cities of the empire. In the cities of Mequinez and Fez they make a kind of glazed tiles, ſimilar to thoſe we call Dutch tiles, of different colours. Theſe are uſed to pave their rooms, and face their walls, which gives them an air of agreeable coolneſs, as well as neatneſs. The inhabitants of Mequinez are more affable and civilized than thoſe of other parts of the empire. According to M. Chenier the women in this part of the empire are extremely handſome, very fair, and have fine black eyes, and beautiful teeth. When taking the air they do not hide themſelves from Europeans, but if a Moor appears, they retire immediately.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and an half in circumference, though it is ſaid to contain 15,000 houſes, 107 moſques, and 117,000 inhabitants. It is ſeated on the declivity of an hill, and affords a beautiful proſpect, but is ſaid to be a place of no ſtrength, and that three Britiſh ſhips of 50 guns would be ſufficient to lay it in ruins. It ſuſtained a moſt dreadful bombardment in the year 1682 from M. du Quefne, admiral to Louis XIV. who indeed may be ſaid to have at that time deſtroyed it. It has, however, always reſiſted the attacks of the Spaniards, though that, on certain occaſions, more through accident than the good conduct of the defendants. In 1530 it was on the point of being ſurrendered to Charles V. when his army was almoſt deſtroyed by an inundation at land, and his fleet by a ſtorm at ſea. In 1775 another attack was made, which proved equally unſucceſsful, though the miſcarriage now ſeemed to have been entirely owing to miſconduct on the part of the aſſailants. The Spaniſh fleet conſiſted of 47 ſhips of the line, and 346 tranſports, carrying an army of near 20,000 foot and 2000 horſe; nevertheleſs they were repulſed with circumſtances of the moſt complicated diſgrace. In 1783 and 1784 the attacks were renewed with no better ſucceſs, which undoubtedly argues a very ſtrange deficiency on the part of the Spaniards, or an unaccountable good fortune in their adverſaries.

Tunis is about three miles in circumference, and though not magnificent, is built in a neat and commodious manner. Both this city and Algiers, however, are inconveniently ſituated for want of freſh water. Tripoli conſiſts of two parts, named the Old and New Town, the latter of which is in the moſt flouriſhing ſtate; but, like the two former, it is deficient in water. Oran, which lies on this coaſt, has been the object of violent contention with the Spaniards. It is about a mile in circumference, and well fortified both by art and nature. Tangier, which lies on the ſouth ſide of the Straits of Gibraltar, and about two miles within the mouth of the ſtrait, belonged to the Engliſh, having been given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, conſort of Charles II. but the miſunderſtandings between that monarch and his parliament obliged him to blow up the fortifications, and deſtroy its harbour; ſo that it is now little better than a fiſhing town. Ceuta, ſituated on the ſame ſtrait, and almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but is very frequently beſieged by the Moors. Tetuan is a ſmall town, conſiſting of about 800 houſes: the inhabitants, however, are ſaid to be civilized, and pretty opulent in their circumſtances.

Commerce and Manufactures. The commerce of theſe countries is generally carried on by the Jews and Chriſtians who reſide among them. The natives have few ſhips of their own that are employed in trade, the lower claſs among them generally depending on their piracies to provide

vide them with the utenſils and manufactures they have occaſion for. Their exports are chiefly leather, fine mats, ſword-knots, carpets, and embroidered handkerchiefs; but they are of worſe quality than thoſe of Turkey, though ſofter and lower priced. Beſides theſe articles, they export dates, olives, raiſins, almonds, gum ſandarac and Arabic, honey, wax, hides, oſtrich feathers, ivory, wool, copper, tin, &c. They alſo carry on a conſiderable trade by caravans to Mecca and Medina, as well as ſome inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back great numbers of negroes, whom they oblige to ſerve in their armies abroad, and make ſlaves of them at home. Their imports are timber, artillery, gun-powder, &c. but no European nation is fond of trading with them, not only on account of their caprice, but the villany they ſhew on all occaſions, when they have it in their power to cheat thoſe with whom they carry on buſineſs. It ſeems indeed ſurpriſing that the European powers ſhould ſuffer themſelves to be trampled upon by a ſet of inſolent barbarians, who take their ſhips at all times, and pretend to a ſuperiority over a number of nations, each of which is more than ſufficient to cruſh them. This has been accounted for from the mutual jealouſy of the Chriſtian powers; from their fear of offending the Porte; or from the difficulty of obtaining any advantage from their conqueſts, as the Moors would inſtantly be ready to fly to the mountains with their moſt valuable effects. But to all this it may be replied, that, without making any permanent conqueſts, the Moors might be ſo effectually humbled, that they never would dare to commit the injuries which they now do with impunity, and this no Chriſtian power would be diſpleaſed with. As to the Porte, it is impoſſible, in the preſent ſtate of matters, that that power can be a great object of terror to any other in Europe; and with regard to the plunder to be expected from ſuch a miſerable crew, it is certainly below the dignity of any Chriſtian power to mention it. The laying one or two of their cities in aſhes, whenever they began their piracies, would ſoon ſtrike them with ſuch terror, as would induce them to uſe honeſter means to provide themſelves with what they wanted.

Conſtitution and Government. This can be ſaid to be little other than mere anarchy. The emperors of Morocco are the moſt arbitrary and brutal tyrants that can be imagined, and their throne is very often uſurped; ſo that here every thing is managed by lawleſs violence and power. The emperors are by turns judges, parties, and executioners, as it comes into their heads, and every military officer claims the ſame privileges. The caſe is exactly ſimilar in Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli; where the people are governed by ſovereigns, who pretend allegiance to the grand ſignior. No regard, however, is paid to his authority; nor can his baſhaw or dey even be ſaid to be be nominated by the Porte. Murder, treachery, and all manner of vice univerſally prevail, and no words can paint the horrors and iniquity of the ſcenes which are continually going forward.

Revenues. Of theſe no account can properly be given, as all of them depend ſo much on extortion, that they may be ſaid to have no other real ſource. Thoſe of the emperor of Morocco, however, notwithſtanding all that he can ſqueeze from his ſubjects, are thought not to amount to L. 170,000 annually.

Military Strength by Sea and Land. The fleet of theſe piratical ſtates is quite contemptible, not exceeding ſix ſhips from 30 to 36 guns; and with this pitiful armament do theſe barbarians keep the European ſtates in

in awe. The emperor of Morocco was ſome time ago able to bring 100,000 men into the field; but that of the other ſtates is trifling; the Algerines not being able to raiſe above 6500 foot and 2000 horſe, which, however, are excellently diſciplined.

Hiſtory. The country known at preſent by the name of the States of Barbary includes all that the Romans formerly knew of the continent of Africa. It contained the celebrated republic of Carthage, with the kingdoms of Mauritania and Numidia. The firſt of theſe was a colony from Tyre, and occupied nearly the place where the preſent city of Tunis ſtands. The people carried on the moſt extenſive commerce in the world, by which they greatly enriched themſelves; but, attempting foreign conqueſts to a great extent, and laviſhing in uſeleſs wars the treaſures which they gained by trade, they frequently brought themſelves to the verge of ruin. Their firſt misfortunes of this kind were in the iſland of Sicily, where they met with frequent and dreadful defeats from the warlike Greeks; and ſcarce had they recovered from theſe diſaſters, when their ill fortune induced them to quarrel with the ſtill more enterpriſing and martial Romans. The conſequence of this was, that at the beginning of the conteſt they were routed in every engagement; every town their adverſaries beſieged was taken; their country was invaded, and the capital itſelf in the utmoſt danger, when they were relieved by the valour and conduct of one Xantippus a Lacedæmonian. Having put him at the head of their army, he diſpoſed of them in ſuch an excellent order, that the Roman army was not only overcome but deſtroyed; only 2000 having the good luck to make their eſcape. This, however, was the only advantage they reaped at that time from the abilities of Xantippus, whoſe method of conducting the war they not only neglected, but with the utmoſt ingratitude, it is ſaid, put him to death. The fortune of the war was therefore inſtantly reverſed, and they were on the point of being expelled from Sicily entirely, when Hamilcar Barcas was ſent into that iſland. Matters were too far gone to be retrieved at that time, and therefore this general, though exceedingly ſkilled in the art of war, could do no more than defend a ſingle fortreſs, named Eryx, againſt the power of the Romans. This he held for eleven years; and there is no probability that he could have been obliged to give it up, had not the Carthaginian fleet been ſo totally defeated by that of the Romans, that ſupplies of proviſions could no longer be ſent. A peace was therefore concluded, by which Carthage loſt all pretenſions to Sicily, and was beſides obliged to ſubmit to ſeveral hard conditions. Nor was this the worſt. The mercenaries who had been employed from the different nations in Africa, being imprudently ſent to Carthage all at once to demand payment of their arrears, and, finding the ſtate unable to ſatisfy their demands, began a moſt horrid inſurrection, in which ſuch enormities were committed on both ſides, that it was termed by the hiſtorians of theſe times the *Inexpiable War*. For ſome time the mercenaries carried every thing before them, and would probably have put an end to the republic, had not Hamilcar been at laſt put at the head of the Carthaginian forces. By him the war was ended, though not without the moſt dreadful cruelty and bloodſhed; 40,000 of theſe wretches, when diſarmed and unable to defend themſelves, being trampled to death, by his order, by elephants.

On the concluſion of the war with the mercenaries, Hamilcar, who had now attained the higheſt office in the ſtate, began to conſider of a

method of ſecuring his country againſt the Romans. The haughtineſs and intolerable luſt of dominion for which theſe people were remarkable, had at laſt exaſperated him to ſuch a degree, that he not only determined never to ceaſe his projects againſt them himſelf, but cauſed his ſon Hanibal, when only nine years of age, to take a moſt ſolemn oath, that he would never make peace with them, but purſue them with everlaſting rancour as long as he lived. Being well appriſed that the extenſive dominions poſſeſſed by the Romans were the real ſource of their power, and that they were thus enabled to ſend forth ſuch multitudes into other countries as could by no means be reſiſted, he formed a plan of giving Carthage an equal extent of territory by the conqueſt of Spain. In this he himſelf perſevered as long as he lived, and had made great progreſs, when he was killed in battle. His ſucceſſor, Aſdrubal, continued his conqueſts, till the Romans, jealous of the increaſing power of the Carthaginians, induced him to ſign a treaty, by which he bound himſelf not to paſs the river Iberus, now the Ebro. This he obſerved faithfully as long as he lived; but being murdered, after enjoying his government nine years, the command devolved upon Hanibal, at that time only 26 years of age, but who had already given ſuch proofs of his conduct and military ſkill, as juſtly raiſed the expectations of the people to the higheſt degree. Under him the conqueſts in Spain were renewed; though it is by no means probable that he conquered the whole of that part which was allowed him by the Romans. Certain it is, however, that the Carthaginians were now poſſeſſed of ſuch a large territory, that Hanibal thought himſelf in a condition to attack the Romans in the moſt effectual method, by invading Italy. This method he wiſely preferred, as it would in a great meaſure prevent them not only from exporting their forces, as had been cuſtomary with them, but would alſo raiſe up enemies in their own territories; it being very probable, that many of the Italian ſtates would be ready to join him if he ſhould happen to get any conſiderable victory over the Romans. With this view he broke the treaty with the Romans, took and deſtroyed the city of Saguntum in Spain, which was in aliance with them; and taking the road to Italy, paſſed the Pyrenean mountains, and entered Gaul. On his march he was ſomewhat incommoded by the barbarous nations who inhabited that country; but partly by force, and partly by informing them of the deſign of his expedition, he obtained a paſſage through the country, and after a moſt arduous and dangerous march acroſs the Alps, entered Italy, and haſtened to meet the Roman general, Scipio, who was advancing with equal celerity to meet him. In the engagement which enſued the Romans were defeated, their camp taken, and they themſelves purſued to a conſiderable diſtance, while Hanibal made conſiderable progreſs, endeavouring, as he advanced, to detach the allies, or rather the ſubjects of the Romans, from their allegiance. The Romans, ſurpriſed, rather than intimidated by this check, ſent another, and, as they probably ſuppoſed, a better general, named Sempronius, againſt him. He met with the ſame fate, however, being defeated with the loſs of a great number of his men, as well as of his camp, while Hanibal advanced with ſeemingly irreſiſtible fury. They now began to be ſomewhat alarmed, and diſpatched againſt him one Flaminius, a man of impetuous valour, and who doubtleſs was thought the moſt proper perſon to contend with ſuch a furious adverſary. The two armies engaged with ſuch ardour, that they were not ſenſible of a violent earthquake which happened during

ring the time of the battle, and greatly damaged ſeveral cities in Italy; but the Romans were put to the rout with great ſlaughter; and ſoon after a ſtrong detachment of their forces being cut off, their affairs ſeemed to be entirely ruined. They now beſtowed the command of the army upon one Fabius, whom they entitled Maximus, and who appears to have been of opinion that Hanibal was invincible; as he laid it down as a maxim never to fight him upon equal terms. Thus indeed there was a poſſibility of haraſſing and deſtroying the Carthaginian army, in ſuch a manner that they might at laſt be obliged to quit Italy, or perhaps be reduced, by want of proviſions, to a ſtarving condition, ſo that they could be eaſily overcome. But even here the Roman general was not ſucceſsful. Hanibal took ſuch care of his forces, that the Romans could not cut them off in ſmall parties, and while he committed the moſt dreadful ravages in the fineſt countries in Italy, and very near the city of Rome itſelf, he not only took care to ſupply his own troops with proviſions, but artfully ſpared the lands belonging to Fabius, ſo that the latter was ſuſpected of holding a correſpondence with the enemy. This, and ſome ſlight advantages gained in a ſkirmiſh or two, induced the Romans to deprive Fabius of the command, and beſtow it upon two generals, Paulus Emilius and Terentius Varro, with orders to venture an engagement. The numbers were now greatly in favour of the Romans; for their army conſiſted of 90,000 men, while that of the Carthaginians did not exceed 50,000. The victory gained on this occaſion, however, was the moſt complete that Hanibal had ever obtained. Fifty thouſand of the Romans periſhed in the field, or in the purſuit, and 10,000 more were quickly after obliged to ſurrender themſelves priſoners, ſo that the city was overwhelmed with confuſion and terror.

Hanibal now, though in the height of proſperity, was yet ſenſible that he ſtood in a very dangerous ſituation. He was in the heart of an hoſtile country; the Italian nations, though aſtoniſhed at his exploits, ſtood aloof, without coming to any reſolution to ſupport him; no ſuccours had been ſent him from Carthage, and he was ſo violently oppoſed by a domeſtic faction, that it was doubtful whether he ſhould receive any or not; while at the ſame time his army was ſo much reduced by the battles he had fought, and the garriſons he had put into cities, that he could no longer hope to act on the offenſive with ſuch vigour as he had done formerly. To extricate himſelf from theſe embaraſſments, he diſpatched ambaſſadors to Rome with propoſals of peace, and ſent his brother Mago to Carthage to give a ſplendid account of his victories, and to demand ſupplies. In both theſe views he was diſappointed. The Romans well knew the ſtrength of their own reſources. They had been able, notwithſtanding their diſaſters, to keep one army in Spain, which had been very ſucceſsful, and another in Sicily, under Marceleus, a celebrated general, who, having ſubdued the whole iſland, was now ready to return to Italy with his victorious army to encounter Hanibal, while weak and unable to ſuſtain the attacks of ſo many enemies. They commanded the Carthaginian ambaſſadors therefore immediately to depart out of their territories, while the ſenate of Carthage itſelf, ſwayed by an infamous faction, ſent to Spain the ſuccours they ought to have ſent with the utmoſt expedition into Italy to the aſſiſtance of Hanibal.

Thus, this great general was left entirely to his ſhifts, and it was not long before he found himſelf oppoſed by Marcellus, a greater general than he had ever encountered. The fortune of the war therefore now

turned againſt him, but the particulars are uncertain. The Roman hiſtorians tell us, that he was often defeated, but Polybius, who lived but a ſhort time after, denies that he ever loſt a battle in Italy. Indeed, from the very nature of the thing, we may eaſily conceive, that, having loſt 15,000 men at the battle of Cannæ, where he gained the great victory abovementioned, a ſingle defeat muſt have ruined his affairs entirely. Nevertheleſs, he continued, with invincible fortitude, to maintain his ground in Italy for near 13 years, though deſtitute of every reſource, except what he could derive from the hoſtile country he was in; ſo that Livy the Roman hiſtorian, who cannot be ſuſpected of partiality towards him, informs us, that his conduct on all occaſions was aſtoniſhing, and that it was impoſſible to know whether he was greateſt in his proſperity or adverſity.

The plan of the Carthaginians all along ſeems to have been to drive the Romans out of Spain before they attacked them in Italy. This, at any rate, was contrary to true policy; for, had they fairly overcome them in Italy, they muſt ſoon have been obliged to recal their armies from Spain. A ſtill greater misfortune, however, was, that they had not in Spain a general capable of oppoſing the Romans. Hence they were perpetually defeated, until at laſt, by dint of immenſe ſuperiority of numbers, they cut off the two generals (Cneius and Publius Scipio) with a ſmall part of their forces. They now took the route to Italy, and arrived there in the 11th year of the war; and, it is univerſally allowed, that, had the two Carthaginian armies effected a junction, there had been an end of the Roman name. Aſdrubal, however, who commanded the army newly arrived from Spain, was by no means equal in military ſkill to his brother Hanibal. Inſtead of puſhing forward, therefore, with the utmoſt expedition to join him, he laid ſiege to the city of Placentia, and thus gave the Romans time to aſſemble their armies in that neighbourhood, and force him to an engagement, in which he himſelf was killed, and his army almoſt totally deſtroyed. Thus Hanibal was finally left to decide the conteſt by himſelf, and what army he could keep up by his own reſources. No diſadvantage nor diſaſter, however, could ſubdue his invincible courage, nor could any art get the better of his conſummate conduct and ſkill. Even Marcellus himſelf, one of the greateſt generals that Rome ever produced, was, by the artifices of Hanibal, drawn into an ambuſcade and killed; but no general whatever could draw Hanibal into an ambuſcade, or gained the leaſt advantage over him by any thing like a ſuperiority of conduct.

But, in the mean time, the affairs of the Carthaginians were totally ruined by the defeat and death of Aſdrubal. Though the Romans had met with a ſevere check by the death of their two generals, their forces there were by no means deſtroyed. They only wanted a leader, and this was ſoon found in young Scipio, the ſon of one of thoſe who had been killed. His progreſs was utterly irreſiſtible by ſuch forces and generals as the Carthaginians had left in Spain. The whole country was therefore quickly ſubdued, and Scipio, having no longer any enemy to contend with in Spain, conveyed his forces over into Africa, and invaded the dominions of Carthage.

It is difficult to ſay whether the misfortunes or the political blunders of this unfortunate people were at this time the greater. The Carthaginians, notwithſtanding the diſtracted or rather deſperate ſtate of their affairs in Spain, ſeem never to have dreamed of any invaſion of Africa.

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In conſequence of this they had ſent over Mago with a conſiderable army to Italy to aſſiſt his brother Hanibal. This ſtep, which they ought to have taken 12 years before, was now the moſt abſurd that could be imagined. Inſtead of ſending Mago to Italy, they ought to have recalled Hanibal from it, and raiſed what forces they could to defend themſelves againſt their enemies. Italy was beſides now in ſuch a ſituation, that, unleſs Mago had happened to touch at the very ſpot where Hanibal was, there was no poſſibility, unleſs he had been endowed with the abilities of Hanibal himſelf, of maintaining himſelf for any time in that country. This was exactly the caſe at preſent; Mago was defeated, wounded, and died of his wounds, ſo that Hanibal was nothing the better of his coming to Italy, at the ſame time that the republic was in the greateſt danger of being entirely overthrown for want of ſufficient forces to defend it. The natural conſequence of this was, that Hanibal was recalled from Italy to defend his own country, and he was recalled at a time when his preſence could no longer be of any ſervice. His army had long been in a ſtarving condition, their numbers were greatly reduced, he was very much inferior in cavalry, and what auxiliaries he could find in Africa were by no means to be depended upon. Under theſe diſadvantages he had no longer the ſame inclination to try the event of a battle as before. He therefore came to an interview with Scipio, and propoſed terms of peace, but the haughty Roman, well knowing the diſadvantages under which his adverſary laboured, refuſed to hearken to any terms; a battle therefore enſued, in which Hanibal was totally defeated; though this was one very remarkable inſtance of the truth of the wiſe man's ſaying, "that the race is not to the ſwift, nor the battle to the ſtrong;" for Scipio himſelf owned that Hanibal was his ſuperior in military affairs. This engagement, however, put an end to the war. Hanibal declared that there was now no reſource than in ſubmitting to the will of the conquerors; and this was no doubt very hard. One of the terms was, that the Carthaginians ſhould never more have any pretenſions to Spain; ſo that, by thus circumſcribing their power on that ſide, having them hemmed in by the kings of Egypt on one hand, and the Mauritanians and Numidians on the other, they were now reduced to the narrow territories they poſſeſſed in Africa, and had ſcarce a chance of ever becoming formidable again. Yet ſtill the Romans had ſo ſeverely felt the effects of Hanibal's proweſs, that they never could think themſelves ſecure while he was alive, or while the city remained. That great general, after the unfortunate concluſion of the war, applied himſelf to legiſlation, reformed many abuſes, and once more brought his country into a flouriſhing ſituation; but the Romans, it ſeems, dreading the genius and efforts of a ſingle man, inſiſted upon his being delivered up to them, or put to death. Hanibal, at all times able to counteract the machinations of his enemies, fled to Antiochus, falſely called the Great, king of Syria, who was at that time ready to engage in a war with the Romans. To him he gave the moſt ſalutary advice reſpecting his affairs; but found himſelf neglected and deſpiſed, while Antiochus, following the advice of thoſe whom he thought better qualified, was diſgracefully defeated, and forced to conſent to an ignominious peace. Hanibal at laſt fled to the court of Pruſias, king of Bithynia, where he was for ſome time hoſpitably received; but, while he endeavoured to ſhew him his true intereſt in oppoſing the overgrown power of the Romans, and to form a league among the Aſiatic potentates for that purpoſe,

poſe, he was, by this ſame Pruſias, betrayed into their hands. As Hannibal had for a long time perceived that there was no confidence to be repoſed in Pruſias, he had contrived a great number of private outlets from the caſtle where he lodged; but the treacherous Bithynian had made himſelf acquainted with all theſe; ſo that, when Hanibal attempted to make his eſcape, he found every one of them guarded. Finding therefore that there was no longer any reſource, or hope of eſcaping, he ended his days by poiſon, before the Romans thought proper, or perhaps before they durſt attack him.

Thus died the greateſt general, in all probability, that the world ever ſaw. After his death the affairs of the Carthaginians quickly tended to ruin. The Romans, on the one hand, and Maſiniſſa, king of Numidia, on the other, oppreſſed them by continual encroachments, until at laſt the Romans thought proper to inſiſt upon their delivering up to them all the arms they poſſeſſed. This abject propoſition was complied with; and ſuch quantities of arms were peaceably yielded up, as ſufficient, it is ſaid, to have ſufficed all Africa. Even this was not accounted a ſufficient ſecurity for Rome. They inſiſted next upon their demoliſhing the city of Carthage, and building another at ſuch a diſtance from the ſea as they thought fit to preſcribe, and concerning themſelves no more in maritime affairs. This condition appeared ſo extravagant to the Carthaginians, that, though entirely diſarmed, they reſolved not to comply. They ſhut their gates therefore, and while the Roman conſul imagined that they were deliberating what courſe to take, they framed new arms, new warlike machines, and uſed every method they could think of for their defence; even the women contributing their hair to be ſubſervient to the public good, and to be manufactured into cords for working the machines. At the time therefore, when the conſul's patience was wearied out, and he attempted to ſcale the walls, his troops met with a moſt dreadful repulſe from men clothed in armour ſo bright and ſhining, from being all entirely new, as terrified them by its very appearance. In a ſhort time the Romans finding it altogether vain to hope for carrying the city by aſſault, changed the ſiege into a blockade; and the Carthaginians ſent out their army into the field. Their general, Aſdrubal, however, was far inferior to Hannibal, who had been ſo much neglected. Inſtead of defeating the beſt Roman generals, he was ſeldom able to gain any advantage over the bad ones; and when Scipio Emilianus took the command, he was ſoon cooped up into the city altogether. The Carthaginians nevertheleſs defended themſelves deſperately; but at laſt the city was taken by ſtorm, and inſtantly filled with blood and ſlaughter. Vaſt numbers were killed by the Romans, many put an end to their own lives, and the remainder were ſold for ſlaves; the city itſelf being razed to the ground, by the expreſs command of the ſenate, and very much againſt the will of Scipio, who wiſhed much to have ſpared it.

Carthage was deſtroyed in the year 146 B. C.; and by the time of Julius Cæſar, the Romans had become maſters of Mauritania and Numidia likewiſe. To them theſe countries continued in ſubjection till the year 428, when Bonifacius the Roman governor, being in danger from the treachery of Aetius, revolted from the emperor, and called in the Vandals to aſſiſt him. Genſeric, their king, willingly accepted the invitation, and in a ſhort time made himſelf maſter of the whole country, erecting it into a kingdom, of which Carthage (rebuilt long before

fore by the Romans) became the capital. Genſeric and hiſſucceſſors proved cruel and bloody tyrants, ſo that the only good property their empire had, was that its duration was very ſhort; for in the time of Juſtinian it was entirely overthrown by the celebrated general Beliſarius. The country now continued ſubject to the Greek emperors, till the time of the khalif Omar, when it was ſubdued by his generals. The khalifs held it till the time of Haroun Al Raſchid, when Ibrahim Ebn Aglab, the governor, ſet up an independent kingdom for himſelf. His poſterity continued to enjoy the ſovereignty in peace till about the year 919, or 920, when one Obeidallah rebelled againſt the Aglabite khalif, and aſſumed the title of khalif of *Cairwan* (the ancient Cyrene, and which had been the reſidence of the Aglabite princes.) A long war enſued between him and the deſcendants of Aglab; in which, however, Obeidallah proved victorious, and having at laſt driven his adverſaries into Egypt, where they became known by the name of *Magrebians*, he extended his dominions conſiderably by conqueſts in Sicily and Africa; making Cairwan the place of his conſtant reſidence. Being thus ſucceſsful in his enterpriſes, he next attempted the conqueſt of Egypt, but was not attended with the ſame good ſucceſs; and his ſon Abul Kaſem fared ſtill worſe; being utterly defeated, and obliged to fly to Cairwan with the loſs of almoſt all his forces. Al Moez, however, the third in deſcent from Abul Kaſem, accompliſhed this project, and thus made himſelf maſter of the whole country, from the extremity of the Mediterranean to the Atlantic Ocean. The Arab princes, however, were by far too barbarous to keep in awe ſuch an extended empire. Al Moez fixed his reſidence in Egypt, and hence an opportunity was given to the governors whom he had appointed over his other provinces to oppreſs the people, or even to ſet up for themſelves. Hence this fine country has ever ſince been in a ſtate of the greateſt barbariſm, inhabited by ignorant wretches, whoſe minds, debaſed by ſuperſtition and tyranny, are almoſt incapable of making any exertion, or of learning any other art beſides that of robbing and pilfering from their neighbours.

The CONTINENT of AFRICA, from the TROPIC of CANCER to the CAPE of GOOD HOPE.

IT is remarkable, that this immenſe tract of country ſeems to have been, almoſt from the foundation of the world conſigned to barbariſm and oblivion; inſomuch, that it has never yet been explored by any civilized nation. The ancients imagined that it was filled with monſters, and indeed all the diſcoveries that have hitherto been made by the moderns are ſcarce ſufficient to refute them. The only perſons who pretend to have travelled all over this immenſe tract, are the Jeſuit miſſionaries, from one or other of whom we have a particular account of almoſt every part. Their relations, however, are now doubted, perhaps with

too

too little reaſon; however, as there is now a ſociety of very reſpectable perſonages, formed for the expreſs purpoſe of exploring the unknown parts of this continent, it is to hoped that valuable acquiſitions will ſoon be made to the ſcience of geography, from the reſearches of thoſe employed by them. This aſſociation commenced on the 9th of June 1788, and conſiſts of 95 members, of whom the following were appointed a committe, viz. Lord Rawdon, the biſhop of Lawdaff, Sir Joſeph Banks, Mr Beaufoy, and Mr Stuart. They made choice of two perſons to execute the plan they had formed, who ſeemed to be exceedingly well adapted for the purpoſe. One was the unfortunate Mr Ledyard already mentioned, and whoſe hiſtory has already been given; the other a Mr Lucas. The latter had been ſent for education as a merchant to Cadiz in Spain; but having the misfortune on his return to be captured by a Sallee rover, he was brought a ſlave to the imperial court of Morocco. After a captivity of three years, he was ſet at liberty, and at the requeſt of earl Cornwallis, accepted the offices of vice conſul, and Charge d'affaires in the empire of Morocco, in which capacity he remained 16 years, when he returned to England, and was appointed Oriental interpreter to the Britiſh court, and in this ſtation he became known to the aſſociation, to whom he expreſſed his willingneſs, with his majeſty's permiſſion, to undertake, in their ſervice, "whatever journey his knowledge of the manners, cuſtoms, and languageof the Arabs might enable him to perform."

From theſe miſſionaries it was natural to expect ſome important information: Mr Ledyard, however, was prevented by death from beginning his journey; and here, in taking leave of this unfortunate geographical hero, we hope it will not be unacceptable to our readers, that we relate his laſt tranſactions in England, which immediately preceded his departure for Africa. His misfortunes in Ruſſia, and ſubſequent arrival in England, have been already related. Having waited on his patron Sir Joſeph Banks, he was told by the latter, that he believed he could recommend to him an adventure almoſt as perilous as that from which he had returned; communicating to him the deſire of the aſſociation, that he ſhould viſit the internal parts of Africa. He was then ſent to a perſon from whom he was to receive inſtructions concerning the route he was to take; which was to be that of the river Niger, ſuppoſed to be from eaſt to weſt, through at leaſt one half of the wideſt part of the continent of Africa. This arduous taſk was ſo far from intimidating our traveller, however, that when aſked at what time he would ſet out on the adventure, he replied without heſitation, "tomorrow morning." Accordingly he left London on the 30th of June 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of Auguſt. From this place he tranſmitted to the aſſociation ſuch accounts as ſhewed him to be a man who was capable of making obſervations as he went along, and conſequently exceedingly well fitted for the taſk he had undertaken. From the ſlave merchants and others who traded to the interior parts of Africa, he had received ſuch accounts as made him impatient to explore them; and he wrote to the committee, that the next intelligence they ſhould receive from him would be from Sennaar, about 600 miles to the ſouthward of Cairo. He was arreſted by death, for which various cauſes have been aſſigned, at the beginning of his journey, and thus the hope of the public was totally diſappointed in their ſanguine hopes. Mr Lucas, however, proceeded; but ſeems to have been no great

great enthuſiaſt, as his journey commenced at Cairo on February 1ſt 1789, and ended on the 7th of the ſame month at Meſaruta. His inſtructions had been to proceed over the deſart of Zahara to Fezzan, a kingdom to the ſouth of the moſt eaſterly part of Barbary, to tranſmit, by the way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence he could collect from the natives of the kingdom, or the traders thither, reſpecting the internal parts of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coaſt of Guinea. Finding it impoſſible, however, to continue his journey, Mr Lucas was obliged to content himſelf with the information he could obtain from thoſe who traded to theſe countries, and which was to the following purpoſe. Fezzan is a ſmall circular territory, placed in a vaſt deſart, like an iſland in the ocean, and of which there are many inſtances in the continent of Africa. It contains near 100 towns and villages, of which the capital is named Murzouk, diſtant about 390 miles ſouth from Meſurata. In this kingdom are ſtill to be ſeen many venerable ruins of antiquity, with ſome diſtricts of remarkable fertility, and ſome lakes emitting a conſtant ſmoke, which produce the foſſile alkali, like thoſe already mentioned in Egypt. The people occupy themſelves chiefly in agriculture and paſturage, and carry on their commerce by means of gold duſt, being ignorant of the uſe of coin. They dwell in clay huts covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid; and as no rain falls in the country, this covering is quite ſufficient. The dreſs of the people reſembles that of the Moors in Barbary; but, during the intenſe heats of ſummer, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the ſun. The ſovereign, who is tributary to the baſhaw of Tripoli, adminiſters juſtice with great impartiality.

To the ſouth-eaſt of Mourzouk, at the diſtance of about 150 miles, is a ſandy deſart 200 miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibeſti, inhabited by ferocious ſavages, who, however, are tributaries to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are ſaid to be fertilized by innumerable ſprings, to abound with corn, and to afford a fine breed of camels. The tribute paid by them to the Fezzans is twenty camel loads of ſena.

To the ſouth of Fezzan lie the two great empires of Bornou and Caſhna; occupying that vaſt tract of country which extends from the river of the Antelopes, for 1200 miles weſtward, including a great part of the courſe of the Niger. Caſhna is ſaid to contain 1000 towns and villages; and in Bornou no fewer than 30 languages are ſpoken. The latter is ſaid to be a fine and beautiful country; its capital being ſeated within a day's journey of a river named Wod-el-Gazel, which loſes itſelf in the deſarts of Bilma. The inhabitants occupy themſelves in paſturage, leading a kind of patriarchal life, and dwelling in tents, having no other wealth but their cattle. They cultivate various kinds of grain, but are unacquainted with the uſe of the plough, and have no other inſtrument of huſbandry but the hoe. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates flouriſh in great abundance, as well as limes, melons, and other tropical fruits; but the moſt valuable vegetable is a tree called *Kedeyna*. This reſembles the olive in its form and height; has a leaf like the lemon; and bears a nut, of which the kernel and ſhell are both in great eſtimation; the firſt on account of its uſe as a food, and the latter on account of the oil it furniſhes by expreſſion, and which anſwers both for lamps, and as a ſubſtitute for oil olive. Bees are ſo numerous,

that the wax is said to be frequently thrown away as useless. A particular account is given by Mr Lucas of the manners, government, &c. of the people, with the method of electing their sovereign, of which our limits will not allow us to give any detail. We cannot help, however, mentioning one particular relating to the reigning sultan, viz. that, by his numerous wives, he has 350 children, of whom 300 are males. This strongly militates against the assertion formerly mentioned of Mr Bruce, who would have us to believe, that, in the warm climates, two, three, or four females are born for one male. Even if we should believe, with Mr Lucas, that many of the mothers exchange their female children for males, it will abundantly prove that there is no scarcity of men in these parts of the world; and indeed this is an assertion which, we believe, was never made by any traveller but himself. The inhabitants in general are described as a *countless multitude*. They are not ignorant of fire arms, though they do not use them: their religion is Mahommedan, and they give their country the name of *Bornou*, or *Bernoa*, from a notion that the ark of Noah rested on the mountains of this country. The word Bornou signifies the *land of Noah*.

To the south-east of Bornou lies an extensive kingdom named Begarmee, beyond which are said to be several barbarous, idolatrous, and even canibal tribes of negroes. The Begarmese indeed seem to be nothing behind them in barbarity, as we are told, that they invade these wretches annually, and take as many prisoners as they can, whom they drive like cattle to Bergamee. It is also said, that, when any of these, exhausted by fatigue, happen to fall behind, one of the horsemen seizes on the oldest, and cutting off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

Such is the latest account we have of some of the internal parts of Africa, to which we shall subjoin that of M. de Brisson, who was obliged against his will to traverse some of the African deserts, having been shipwrecked on the western coast of that continent, and taken prisoner by a tribe of wandering Arabs. By them he was cruelly used, and, after many adventures, was at last presented to the emperor of Morocco, by whom he was given up, along with some others, to the French consul. It is not to be supposed, that, in the state of oppression and despondency in which our author was, that he could make many remarks on the geography of the countries through which he passed. His mind seems indeed to have been filled with such rancour against his captors, that he cannot represent them in terms sufficiently degrading. The character he gives of their women is shocking. "The extravagance of their coquetry, says he, is almost incredible. Their hair is plaited in the most artful manner. Some tresses are left to flow on their bosoms; to which they attach every trinket they can meet with. I have seen some adorned with shells, keys, and padlocks of trunks, rings of umbrellas, and buttons of breeches taken from sailors. Their head dress thus prepared, they cover with a dish-clout, which wraps the head, veils half the nose, and is fastened under the chin. To give lustre to their eyes, they paint them round with a large copper needle, rubbed on a blue stone. At last comes the adjustment of the drapery: All the art consists in folding it with dexterity, and to make the plaits hold, though neither pins, strings, nor needles are employed. To complete their dress, they redden the nails of their hands and feet. A Mooriſh lady, to be thought handsome, ought to have long teeth projecting from the mouth; the flesh, from the shoulder to the elbow, loose and flabby; the legs, thighs, and body uncommonly large;

large; the walk ſtiff and heavy; bracelets, like the collars of Daniſh dogs on their legs and arms. In ſhort, from their childhood, they uſe every endeavour to diſfigure the traces of nature, by ſubſtituting ridiculous and odious alterations. Their whole wardrobe conſiſts in the apparel juſt deſcribed. After the inconveniencies which you muſt think the women ſuffer, when it is known that they are brought to bed on this drapery, that it ſerves to cleanſe their infants, and to wipe their own noſes; you cannot form a very favourable idea of the decency and ſweetneſs of their ſwarthy ladyſhips."

The accounts giving us by Mr Bruce of the Abyſſinians is almoſt as diſguſting, and in ſome reſpects barbarous beyond any thing of which we could have an idea. Their manner of feeding is beyond a parallel, if we may believe the report of our author. He informs us, that having fallen in with ſome ſoldiers driving a cow before them, he was ſurpriſed to ſee them throw down the animal, cut off pieces of her fleſh, and then flapping the ſkin over the wound, make her get up and walk on as before. This he at firſt ſuppoſed to be a military manœvure, and an expeditious method of carrying proviſions along with them; but he ſoon found that it was the common practice of the country, and that the fate of the unfortunate animals uſed by Abyſſinians for food was much worſe than if they were devoured by the moſt cruel wild beaſts. The latter would kill them at once, or at leaſt not keep them long in torment; but theſe wild beaſts *in human ſhape* protract their agonies as much as poſſible; fleſh being in no eſtimation among them, unleſs it be warm and quivering with life. In their manners otherwiſe they are debauched in the moſt incredible degree; the country is a ſeat of continual war and bloodſhed; ignorance, and the moſt abominable ſuperſtitions univerſally prevail; and, when to all this we join the nominal profeſſion of Chriſtianity, the idea is too ſhocking to be born.

From theſe horrible and diſguſting ſcenes, we turn with pleaſure even to the *Hottentots*, who inhabit the ſouthern extremity of the continent. On the firſt ſettlement of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, theſe people were looked upon to be the moſt degenerate and filthy of the human ſpecies. It is needleſs to repeat in this place the many ſtories told of their naſtineſs; their feeding upon excrements, adorning themſelves with the entrails of beaſts, &c. all of which are well known. From the accounts of the lateſt travellers, it appears, that theſe cuſtoms have either been magnified beyond bounds, or that they are in a great meaſure laid aſide; inſomuch, that even Dr Sparman and M. Vaillant ſeem to have paſſed their time not diſagreeably among them. Both of them, however, agree that they are very naſty, if we call rubbing themſelves with ſoot and greaſe naſtineſs; though this appears to the Hottentots to be the perfection of cleanlineſs, and the ſweeteſt perfume imaginable. It is incredible that any European ſhould behold, without diſguſt, females of this country bedaubed from head to foot with the ointment juſt mentioned, clothed in undreſſed ſheep's-ſkins, or thoſe of other animals, alternately devouring and being devoured by the vermin which breed on their bodies; yet even ſuch ladies, it ſeems, can inſpire European gentlemen with paſſion. "I perceived a girl, ſays M. de Vaillant, (who was at that time diſtributing preſents among them) who manifeſted much leſs eagerneſs to ſhare the preſents with her companions than to examine my perſon with attention. I approached to give her a better opportunity, and was no leſs ſtruck with her appearance. Her form

was light and elegant, her teeth beautifully white, and *Albane* himself would have been charmed by the amorous contour of her body. She was *the youngeſt of the Graces* diſguiſed in the form of an Hottentot!"

All travellers agree that the Hottentots have no notion of a ſupreme being; or if they believe in any power diſtinct from this world, it is in a *Devil*, who ſends upon them all their misfortunes, of which they conſtantly ſuppoſe rain to be one. With all their faults, however, they are gentle and inoffenſive, but much more ſo in thoſe places where they have no connection with Europeans than elſewhere, a circumſtance greatly to the diſcredit of the latter. With regard to the country of the Hottentots, Dr Sparman informs us, that there is but one lake in the whole; and, though the rivers are numerous, the ſoil is parched up with drought, which ſeems to be an irremediable evil in the continent of Africa, unleſs the inhabitants would take the trouble of watering their lands artificially. The heat of the ſun is often intolerable; and, among ſome of the mountains, the thunder is not only very violent, but in a manner continual; not a day, nay, ſcarcely an hour paſſing without it, at leaſt in the ſummer ſeaſon. Abyſſinia, according to Mr Bruce, is a cold rainy country, being deluged in ſuch a manner for great part of the year, that no ſerpents, which from time immemorial have been reckoned the peculiar inhabitants of Africa, can live there. In the ſouthern part are vaſt numbers of elephants, rhinoceroſes, ſea-cows, lions, leopards, hyænas, and other wild beaſts; alſo many very curious birds, of which M. Vaillant has deſcribed 300 entirely unknown to European naturaliſts before. Numbers of rare and curious plants are likewiſe to be met with, of which Mr Bruce Dr Sparman, &c have deſcribed a great many. On the whole, we can only conclude, that were this part of the world to be colonized by Europeans, they would not only in all probability enrich themſelves, but do the natives a kindneſs, by obliging them to leave off their wandering and ſavage way of life, and introducing ſome knowledge of religion as well as of uſeful arts among them. On the weſtern parts of the continent the Britiſh have ſome ſettlements, but theſe are merely for the ſake of trade, and ſituated in ſuch unwholeſome places of the country, that very little can be poſſeſſed. The Portugueſe are in poſſeſſion of the eaſt and weſt coaſts from the equator to the Tropic of Capricorn; but it does not appear that they have enriched themſelves greatly by theſe acquiſitions; and indeed very little more is known of theſe countries than ſuch as are ſtill in the hands of ſavages The beſt regulated and moſt flouriſhing ſettlement on the African continent is unqueſtionably that of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope; though we muſt attribute this to the induſtry of the people, rather than to any peculiar excellence of the climate or ſoil of the country.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

IN our account of the African iſlands, we ſhall begin with the Azores, though it is difficult to determine which of the quarters of the globe they belong to, being almoſt at an equal diſtance from the three continents

nents of Europe, Africa, and America. They are nine in number, the largeſt of which, named St Michael, is near 100 miles in circumference, and contains near 50,000 inhabitants; but Tercera is the moſt important, on account of its harbour and anchorage. The capital of this laſt is named Angra, and contains about 5000 inhabitants. The names of the others are St George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They are ſituated between 37 and 40 degrees north latitude, and between 25 and 32 weſt longitude. The air is extremely fine, the ſky ſerene, and the climate healthy; but they are ſubject to violent earthquakes, which have often threatened to bury them under the waves, from whence they have probably been raiſed by volcanic eruptions. The ſoil is extremely fertile; and they are not only free from venomous animals, but it is ſaid that none of theſe will live many hours if imported thither. They were diſcovered about the middle of the 15th century by one Joſhua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Liſbon had been driven thither, and gave them the name of the Flemiſh iſlands. Having announced his diſcovery, however, on his arrival at Liſbon, the Portugueſe immediately ſet ſail, took poſſeſſion of them, giving them the name of the *Azores*, from the number of hawks and falcons they found upon them, and have kept them ever ſince. In the time of queen Elizabeth the iſland of St Michael was twice plundered by the Engliſh.

2. The *Madeiras* are ſituated between 32° 30′ and 33° 30′ of north latitude, and 18 and 23 of weſt longitude. The largeſt is about 75 miles in length, and 60 in breadth; conſiſting almoſt entirely of one hill, which in captain Cook's voyages was obſerved to have marks of a volcanic origin. The capital is named Funchal, and is the only town of any conſequence in the iſland. It ſtands at the bottom of a large bay, and towards the ſea has a high wall, defended by a battery of cannon. Here only it is poſſible for a boat to land; and even here the landing is very dangerous, on account of the ſurf, and the ſtones with which the beach is covered. The ſoil is extremely fertile, producing in great abundance the fineſt kind of ſugar, wine, pomegranates, and the moſt exquiſite fruits of other kinds; as well as corn, honey, and wax, gums of ſeveral kinds, particularly dragon's blood, maſtic, &c. There are alſo cedar, orange and lemon-trees in great abundance; and the people are eſteemed the beſt of preſerving theſe fruits of any in the world; as well as at making marmalade and perfumed paſtes. The manufacture of ſugar was firſt ſet up in this iſland, and from thence is ſaid to have been exported to the Braſils in America. The Madeira ſugar is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. Wine, however, is now the principal manufacture, as being found more profitable; for which reaſon moſt of the ſugar plantations are now deſtroyed, and vineyards planted in their room. In this iſland are produced the wines named Malmſey, Tent, as well as that diſtinguiſhed by the name of Madeira; of which laſt 20,000 hogſheads are ſaid to be annually exported to the Weſt Indies, particularly to the iſland of Barbadoes. No kind of wine is found to endure a warm climate equally well with Madeira; as it improves in quality by being expoſed to the ſun in barrels after it has been manufactured. The Madeira iſlands, like the Azores, are ſaid to ſuſtain no venomous animal. They have no wild beaſts except boars; but all kinds of fowls breed here in abundance. There are other two iſlands, one of which is named Porto Santo. They were known to the ancients,

but

but were for a long time loſt, and are ſaid to have been diſcovered by an Engliſhman in 1344. Others affirm that they were diſcovered in 1519 by the Portugueſe. It is certain, however, that the Portugueſe were the firſt European nation who inhabited them, and are ſtill almoſt the only inhabitants. On their firſt arrival, they found the country almoſt entirely overgrown with woods, which they cut down or ſet fire to, and thus rendered it capable of being cultivated.

3. The *Canaries* were well known to the ancients under the name of the *Fortunate Iſlands*. They are ſeven in number, ſituated between 27 and 28 degrees north latitude, and 12 and 15 weſt longitude. The air and climate, as well as the fertility of the ſoil of theſe iſlands, has juſtly entitled them to the appellation juſt mentioned. They produce the moſt delicious fruits in great abundance, as well as the fineſt wine in the world, named from them, Canary. The greateſt part of the produce is exported to Britain, which is ſuppoſed not to be leſs than 10,000 hogſheads annually. They are remarkable alſo for the beautiful little birds named *Canary* birds, which are now ſo common, and whoſe ſong is ſo much admired in Britain. The largeſt of them, named Grand Canary, is about 120 miles in circumference, and is very fertile, inſomuch, that the inhabitants reap two harveſts annually. Teneriffe, the next in bigneſs to Canary, is remarkable for the high mountain called the Peak, which for a long time was ſuppoſed to be the higheſt in the world, though now known to be inferior in that reſpect to ſeveral others both in Europe, Aſia, and America. Its height has lately been calculated at 13,265 feet. It is a volcano, though we very ſeldom hear of any of its eruptions. The Canaries were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but, on the deſtruction of that ſtate by the Romans, they remained concealed from the reſt of the world for a long time, till they were again diſcovered by the Spaniards, who took poſſeſſion of them in 1405, and to whom they ſtill belong. The inhabitants reſembled the Africans in their ſtature and complexion, when the Spaniards firſt came among them; but their language was different; ſo that it is not impoſſible that they might be the deſcendents of the ancient Carthaginians. They were exceſſively barbarous, and did not know that there was any country in the world beſides their own.

4. The *Cape Verd Iſlands* lie in the neighbourhood of the river Gambia, ſuppoſed to be a branch of the Niger, between 15 and 18 degrees north latitude, and between 21 and 25 weſt longitude. There are 20 of them in all, but ſome are only barren and uninhabited rocks not worth notice. They were diſcovered in 1460 by the Portugueſe, who ſtill poſſeſs them. The air is very hot, and in many of them very unwholſome. They take their name from a Cape on the continent to which they are oppoſite. St Jago, the largeſt, is about 150 miles in circumference, and produces ſugar, wine, cotton, cocoa nuts, and the tropical fruits. It is likewiſe indifferently fertile in corn, but has much barren land in it. The moſt important article of its commerce is madder, which grows plentifully among the cliffs. Here are ſome extreme pretty green monkies with black faces; and there are plenty of hogs and poultry. Vaſt quantities of ſalt are made in the iſland of Mayo, by the heat of the ſun, from the ſea water, which, at ſpring tides, is received into a kind of pan two or three miles long, naturally formed by a ſand bank. A conſiderable trade in this commodity is carried on by the Britiſh, who have commonly a man of war to guard the veſſels which come here to load.

Aſſes

Aſſes are likewiſe an article of exportation from this iſland, which are carried to Barbadoes and other Britiſh plantations. The governor, who is a negro, as well as the reſt of the inhabitants, though they ſpeak the Portugueſe language, always expects a preſent from thoſe ſhips which come to load at this iſland. The ſea water is here ſo clear, that a watch dropped into it accidentally was ſeen at the depth of a number of fathoms, and brought up by a diver. One of theſe iſlands, named Fogo, is a volcano, which ſometimes breaks forth like Etna or Veſuvius. Praya, or Baya, is memorable for an action between the French and Britiſh fleets in the laſt war. It has a good port, frequented by the Britiſh, French, and Dutch ſhips from Guinea and the Eaſt Indies, which frequently touch here for refreſhments.

5. *Goree*, ſituated in north latitude, 14° 43′ weſt longitude 17° 20′, had its name from the iſland and town of Goree in Holland. Its vicinity to the iſlands of Cape Verd renders it a place of more importance than it would otherwiſe be, and of conſequence it has been contended for by the European nations, though only two miles in circumference. It was firſt taken poſſeſſion of by the Dutch, from whom the Britiſh took it in 1665; in 1667 it fell into the hands of the French, who kept poſſeſſion of it till the year 1759, when it was reduced by the Britiſh, but given up again at the peace of 1763. In the laſt war it was alſo taken, but given up in 1783.

6. In the Gulf of Guinea lie the iſlands of *St Thomas*, *Anaboa*, *Prince's Iſland*, and *Fernando Po*; which furniſh proviſions and water to ſuch ſhips as happen to paſs along that coaſt. They belong to the Portugueſe,

7. *St Mathew* is a ſmall iſland lying in 6° 00′ of weſt longitude; and 1° 30′ ſouth latitude; is now uninhabited. It was formerly poſſeſſed by the Portugueſe, but they deſerted it. It is only remarkable for having a lake of freſh water; a thing very uncommon in theſe parts.

8. *Aſcenſion* is a ſmall volcanic iſland in 9° 00′ ſouth latitude. It is as yet ſo barren, that when viſited by Mr Forſter, who ſailed with captain Cook, he could find only two ſpecies of plants upon it. It has, however, a ſafe and convenient harbour, where the Eaſt India ſhips always touch, in order to ſupply themſelves with turtle, which are extremely numerous.

9. *St Helena* is the moſt ſoutherly of the African iſlands on the weſtern ſide of the continent; from which it is about 1295 miles diſtant. It was firſt taken poſſeſſion of by the Engliſh Eaſt India company in 1600; but was taken by the Dutch in 1673. From them it was recovered next year, and at the ſame time three of their Eaſt India veſſels, which happened to lie in the road, were captured. It is about 21 miles in circumference, and at a diſtance has the appearance of a hard and barren rock, notwithſtanding which it is far from being unfruitful. Its acceſs is extremely difficult, landing being practicable only at one place; and as the wind blows always from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip happen to paſs by it ever ſo little, it is impoſſible to recover it again. The produce of the iſland is potatoes, yams, bananas, kidney-beans, grapes, and Indian corn; but the latter is almoſt entirely devoured by rats, which ſwarm in holes of the rocks. There is alſo great plenty of hogs, black cattle, poultry, &c. with which they ſupply the crews of ſuch ſhips as touch here.

10. *Bourbon* is ſituated in 56° eaſt longitude, and 21° ſouth latitude, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for ſhipping in the neighbourhood, eſpecially on the north and ſouth; but the harbours

bours are generally unsafe on account of the monsoons; and the navigation of the coast is very dangerous, by reason of the sunk rocks which lie all along. There is a volcano on the southern extremity of the island, which continually throws out flames with an horrid noise. The climate is healthy but hot, and subject to hurricanes, which, however, seldom do much damage. The island is well watered with springs and rivulets; so that the soil is extremely fertile, and many of the trees yield valuable gums. The island also produces several kind of spices. The woods are stored with birds of various kinds, and the seas with all sorts of fish. On the shores also are found ambergrise, coral, and many beautiful shells. This island is in possession of the French, who first settled here in the year 1672, after being driven from the island of Madagascar.

11. *Mauritius* formerly belonged to the Dutch, who settled here in 1598, and gave it this name in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder. It is of an oval form, and about 150 miles in circumference; situated in 58 degrees east longitude, and 20 south latitude; and has a fine harbour, 100 fathoms deep at the entrance, and capable of holding 50 large ships. The climate is extremely pleasant and healthy; but the country is mountainous, and some of these are so high, that their tops are continually covered with snow. The soil is but indifferently fruitful; however, it produces rice, tobacco, a number of different kinds of fruit, having also a great variety of cattle. The best ebony in the world is produced here, and many other kinds of valuable wood, particularly two, which much resemble ebony in their properties, though different in colour, one being red, and the other yellow. It is now in the possession of the French.

12. *Madagascar*, the largest of all the African islands, is near 1000 miles in length from north to south, and in most places between 200 and 300 broad; lying between 9 and 24 degrees south latitude; and between 44 and 51 of east longitude. It is parted from the continent of Africa by a channel named *Mosambic*, in which there always runs a very high and stormy sea; however the European ships, bound for the Indies, generally choose this passage, rather than that by the east side of the island. The country is very pleasant and fertile, and the inhabitants are less barbarous than on the continent of Africa. They are of various complexions and religions, though the Mahometan and Pagan are generally prevailent. Some observe the Jewish sabbath, and profess a kind of Judaism, but no accounts of the settlement of any Jews in this island are to be met with. Madagascar was first discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1641; but the people disliking their tyranny, drove them out in 1652, since which time the island has been entirely possessed by the natives.

13. The *Komoro Islands* lie between 12 and 13 degrees south latitude; and between 45 and 48 east longitude; at an equal distance from the continent of Africa and the island of Madagascar. They are five in number, viz. Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazeia and Komoro. The principal island is Joanna, which exacts a tribute from the rest. It is about 12 miles in breadth, and 30 in length; being very fertile in all kinds of tropical products, so that the East India ships, bound for Bombay, generally touch at this island. The inhabitants are Mahommedan negroes, and generally behave very civilly to strangers.

14. The island of *Babel-mandel* gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, at the entrance of which it is situated, at the distance of about

about four miles from the coaſt of Africa, and as much from that of Aſia. It is of very little value, being only five miles in circumference; nevertheleſs, it was formerly a great object of contention betwixt the Arabians and Ethiopians, on account of its commanding the entrance to the Red Sea, from whence the Eaſt India commodities were all imported before the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope; but ſince that event the trade this way has become very trifling.

14. *Zocotra, or Socotora*, is ſituated in 35 degrees eaſt longitude, and 10° 30 minutes north latitude; about 150 miles eaſt from Cape Guardafui, the moſt eaſterly point of the continent of Africa. It is 80 miles long, and upwards of 50 in breadth. It has two harbours, both of which are very convenient; and here the European veſſels uſed to ſtay if they happened at any time to loſe their paſſage to India. The country is fertile and populous, producing frankincenſe, gum, tragacanth, aloes, &c. The inhabitants are deſcendants of the Arabs, and governed by a prince ſuppoſed to be tributary to the grand ſignior.

AMERICA.

WE are now arrived at the fourth and laſt diviſion of the world; a continent, which though it may rival in extent any of thoſe formerly known, has been but lately diſcovered to the reſt of the world, and in the opinion of ſome philoſophers, has but lately come into exiſtence. Some obſcure notions of America however, ſeem to have been entertained by the ancients, and quotations have been made from ſeveral authors, which are apparent confirmations of the truth of it. A treatiſe aſcribed to Ariſtotle, informs us, that the Carthaginians diſcovered an iſland far beyond the Straits of Hercules (the preſent Straits of Gibraltar) large, fertile, and finely watered with navigable rivers, but uninhabited. It is, however, repreſented as having been but a few days ſailing from the continent; and the beauty and fertility of it is ſaid to have been ſo agreeable to the firſt diſcoverers, that they were induced to ſettle there; but this ſcheme was diſcouraged by the Carthaginians, who obliged the new colony to remove. By others we are informed, that the Tyrians would have ſettled a colony upon this iſland, had not the Carthaginians oppoſed them for ſtate reaſons.

But, whatever obſcure hints concerning the exiſtence of this continent might have been handed about amongſt the nations of antiquity, it does not appear that any of them were ever ſo much convinced of the reality of its exiſtence, as to go in queſt of it. This was not even the caſe with the real diſcoverer Columbus. The important diſcovery made by him, was by no means the reſult of deſign, but of mere accident. Towards the cloſe of the 15th century, commerce began to revive, and along with it the ſpirit of geographical diſcovery. Many adventurers wiſhed to diſtinguiſh themſelves in this way; and of theſe, none more than Chriſtopher Columbus, an Italian, and native of Genoa. His coun-

try had for a long time carried on a very extenſive trade, but was rivalled and eclipſed by the Venetians, who engroſſed the whole commerce of the Eaſt Indies. It was with a view to deprive them of this valuable branch of commerce, or at leaſt that the Genoeſe might ſhare it along with them, that our adventurer undertook his voyage. Even in thoſe dark ages, he had learned that the world was of a ſpherical figure, and from the maps exiſting at that time, he began to conjecture that the neareſt way of ſailing to the Eaſt Indies, would be to ſail weſtward. This indeed would perhaps have been the caſe, if the maps to which he had acceſs, had been rightly laid down; but they were far from being accurate. They were erroneous to ſuch a degree, that, had not the continent of America exiſted, and could Columbus have carried on his plan of circumnavigating the globe as he propoſed, he muſt undoubtedly have periſhed by reaſon of the vaſt length of way he would have had to ſail. The ſcheme, however, as matters then ſtood, was built upon the moſt perfectly ſolid and rational principles; but was rejected by the Genoeſe, as abſurd and chimerical. On this diſappointment Columbus repaired to the court of France, where he was laughed at, and ridiculed in the moſt mortifying manner. He ſucceſſively applied to the courts of England and Portugal, but in vain. At laſt he had recourſe to Spain, and, after a moſt tedious attendance of eight years, was enabled to put in practice the ſcheme he had ſo much at heart. He now obtained the command of a ſmall ſquadron of three ſhips. The largeſt, which indeed was of no conſiderable ſize, was commanded by Columbus himſelf, who gave it the name of *Santa Maria;* the ſecond, named the *Pinta,* was commanded by captain Martin Pinzon, his brother Francis being pilot; and the third was commanded by Vincent Yanez Pinzon. The two laſt veſſels were of ſuch a ſmall ſize, that they ſcarcely deſerved the name of more than large boats; the ſquadron, ſuch as it was, was victualled for twelve months, and had on board 90 men, principally ſailors, with ſome few adventurers, who voluntarily followed the fortunes of Columbus, and ſome of the gentlemen of queen Iſabella's court, who had been appointed by that princeſs to attend him.

In ſuch an expedition, we may eaſily conceive that the ſituation of the commander could not be very agreeable. His difficulties were occaſioned not only by the length and uncertainty of the voyage itſelf, but the miſerable equipment of his veſſels, and, above all, the fears and uneaſineſſes, as well as the ignorance and obſtinacy of his ſailors; for, conſidering themſelves as in a manner devoted to deſtruction, the moſt trifling accident was ready to excite a dangerous ſpirit of mutiny and rebellion among them. The voyage commenced on Friday the third of Auguſt 1492, and the very next day the ſpirits of the ſailors were caſt down by the breaking looſe of the rudder of the Pinta, which they took for an infallible omen of the miſcarriage of the whole expedition. So crazy and ill fitted out alſo were the ſhips, that by the time they arrived at the Canaries, it was neceſſary to ſtop there in order to refit them. This being done, he ſet ſail from Gomora, the moſt weſterly of the Canary iſlands, on the ſixth day of September the ſame year, leaving the ordinary courſe of navigators, and ſteering directly weſtward for the Eaſt Indies, as he imagined. No ſooner had he loſt ſight of land, however, than his men began to beat their breaſts, tear their hair, and ſhew all the ſymptoms of the moſt violent grief, which their commander could only remove

move by aſſurances of ſucceſs, and eſpecially the promiſes of unbounded wealth in regions hitherto unknown and unexplored. This conſolation, however, required to be very frequently repeated. Columbus was obliged to direct every thing by his ſole authority, to ſuperintend every order he gave, and to ſee it executed with all proper expedition, ſo that he could allow himſelf only a few hours ſleep, and was in a manner quite worn out with fatigue. After the example of the Portugueſe diſcoverers, he watched the motions of the tides and currents, the appearance of birds, fiſhes, ſea weeds, &c. from which he frequently drew prognoſtics of land, though they often proved fallacious; and a diſappointment of this kind was always ſure to produce a mutiny among the ſailors. In the courſe of the voyage, however, he himſelf was alarmed by obſerving the variation of the magnetic needle, which threatened to deprive him of the only reſource that was left for performing his voyage with ſafety. At laſt he arrived in the latitude where the trade-wind blows, and which continued for a long time with ſuch regularity, that they were ſoon got 400 leagues to the weſtward of the Canaries. Here they found the ſea ſo covered with weeds, that they obſtructed the motion of the veſſels, and the ſailors now cried out, that that they were brought to the utmoſt verge of the navigable ocean, that the weeds would continually increaſe, and at laſt hold them faſt altogether. Still, however, Columbus found means to comfort and encourage them; but, at laſt, having ſailed for 30 days in a weſterly courſe without ſucceſs, a general mutiny took place, both among officers and men, ſo that Columbus was obliged to promiſe to return within three days; if within that time land ſhould not be diſcovered. Indeed the ſigns of land were now ſo certain, that we cannot but have a ſtrange opinion of the ignorance and folly of the crew, who would rather have returned through ſuch an immenſe tract, than proceeded on for a very little ſpace farther, in order to attain the end for which they had ſet out. The ſigns which encouraged Columbus ſo much were, that the ſounding line had reached the bottom, and the ſoil which it brought up was ſuch as indicated land to be not far diſtant. The flocks of birds had increaſed, and were compoſed not only of ſea but alſo land fowl. A piece of cane newly cut, and a piece of carved wood were obſerved on the ſurface of the water. A branch of a tree, with red berries quite freſh, was likewiſe taken up; the clouds aſſumed a new appearance; the air became more mild and warm; and at night the wind became unequal and variable. At laſt, therefore, though no land had been yet diſcovered, Columbus ordered the ſails to be furled, and ſtrict watch to be kept, leſt they ſhould unawares run upon it in the night-time. That night the important diſcovery was made, to the great joy of the crew; and the commander, with all his men, landed in the newly diſcovered country, with great ceremony, taking poſſeſſion of the ground, as if conſcious of the great revolution which was to enſue in the affairs of mankind by the diſcovery they had made. They ſoon perceived, however, that the country they had arrived at was not the Eaſt Indies. The people were aſtoniſhed at their appearance; they fell proſtrate at the ſound of the artillery, which they took for thunder, and miſtook their new gueſts for Deities. In a little time, however, they became more familiar; the women offered their embraces, which were readily accepted, and, in this very firſt voyage of Columbus, the venereal diſeaſe is ſaid to have been caught by the ſailors and imported to Europe,

where it quickly made the moſt rapid and aſtoniſhing progreſs, and has ſince continued to diſſeminate the moſt direful maladies over the whole eaſtern continent.

The fame which Columbus acquired by his ſucceſs was equal to the mortification and diſgrace he had ſuffered during the tedious attendance upon the various courts to which he had applied. In no longer time than four years after his firſt voyage, a Venetian, named John Cabot,
A. D. 1496. obtained, from Henry VII. a commiſſion to diſcover unknown lands, and annex them to the crown of England. He ſet ſail on this expedition in the ſpring, with two ſhips, intending to have followed the plan originally laid down by Columbus, and ſail to China by a weſterly courſe. He was ſtopped, however, by part of Terra Labrador, along which he ſailed as far as the 67th degree of north
1513. latitude. His ſon, Sabaſtian, diſcovered the whole extent of coaſt from Davies's Straits to Florida; and, ſoon after, the country of Florida was explored by John Ponce. He gave it this name on account of its beautiful appearance at the time when he viſited it, which was the month of April; and for ſeveral years both the north and ſouth continents went by the name of Florida.

1516. The coaſt of South America was diſcovered by Sir Sabaſtian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert, who explored it as far as Braſil; and, for upwards of a century, this vaſt tract of territory remained unnoticed and unclaimed by any power but the Spaniards.

1524. Francis I. was the firſt French monarch who attempted any diſcoveries in America. He employed one John Verrazano for
1525. the purpoſe, who traverſed the coaſt from 28 to 50 degrees north latitude, but was loſt in a voyage he made next year. A fleet,
1534. however, was fitted out in 1524 by order of the ſame monarch, the command of which was given to James Cartier; and by him the great river of St Laurence was diſcovered. As the object at this time ſeems to have been the diſcovery of a northweſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies, rather than any ſettlement in the newly diſcovered country, he ſailed up this river as far as 51 degrees north latitude, attempting in
1536. vain to find the deſired paſſage. Next year he ſailed up the ſame river ſtill farther, continuing his voyage to the great fall, 300 leagues from the mouth. The country on both ſides he called New France, and built a fort in it, where he ſpent the winter, and returned in the ſpring following to his own country.

In 1542, another adventurer, Francis la Roche, was ſent to this country by order of the French king, but with a deſign to form a ſettlement, as appears by his taking along with him about 200 men, women and children, who paſſed the winter in a fort they had conſtructed, but returned to France next Spring. The ſtay they made at this time, however, encouraged a conſiderable number of others to embark for the ſame country in 1550, but they were never afterwards heard of. The continent of North America therefore remained without any attempts to form an European ſettlement there till the year 1598, when the marquis de la Roche was commiſſioned to conquer New France, called alſo Canada, and other countries not poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian prince; but it does not appear that la Roche ever attempted to put his commiſſion in execution, or that any farther attempts were made during this century.

The

The Miſſiſſippi river was diſcovered by Ferdinand de Soto, who had ſailed from Cuba with a deſign to make a conqueſt of Florida. He travelled, over land, from Spirito Santo, where he had landed, 450 leagues in a northerly direction, when he diſcovered the river, in that place 19 fathoms deep, and a quarter of a mile broad. Here, however, his diſcoveries ended; for he died, and was buried on the banks of it in the year 1542. But the courſe of the river was explored by his ſucceſſor Alverdo, who proceeded down the ſtream 400 leagues, when he found it 15 leagues in breadth, and from the ſize and length of its courſe from the place whence he ſet out to the ſea, he concluded that the ſource of the ſtream could not be leſs than 400 leagues above the place of his embarkation. 1539.

The French in the mean time ſtill continued their diſcoveries. A fleet was ſent out under the command of John Ribalt. He diſcovered a number of rivers, on the banks of one of which he built a fort named Fort Charles, and left a colony in it under the direction of captain Albert; but the new governor, behaving with too much ſeverity, was killed in an inſurrection of his ſubjects. Two years after, another commander was ſent with three ſhips to Florida, where he arrived at one of the rivers diſcovered by Ribalt, and called by him *May*, but now known by the name of St Mary's, where he built a fort named Carolina, in honour of his ſovereign. Ribalt followed with ſeven ſhips to bring ſuccours to the infant colony; but the Spaniards, who, by reaſon of their diſcovery of one part of the continent, imagined themſelves juſtly entitled to the poſſeſſion of the whole, purſued him up the river, and cruelly maſſacred him and his crew, on which the whole colony took the firſt opportunity of ſetting ſail for France, while the Spaniſh commander built three forts, which he garriſoned with 1200 ſoldiers. In 1567 three other ſhips were ſent to Florida from France, under the command of Dominique de Gourges, to diſpoſſeſs the Spaniards of that part of Florida which they had ſo unjuſtly ſeized. On his arrival on the coaſt of Florida, he made an unſucceſsful attack on the Spaniſh forts, and, having proved ſucceſsful, he put moſt of the garriſon to the ſword, demoliſhing all their fortreſſes, and then returning in triumph to France. 1562. 1564.

The north-weſt paſſage to China, and other parts of the Eaſt Indies, being ſtill an object, Captain Forbiſher was ſent out from England in queſt of it, who diſcovered the ſtraits which bear his name; but being ſtopped by the ice, he was obliged to return to England without accompliſhing hispurpoſe. Three years after, queen Eliſabeth granted a patent to Sir Humphrey Gilbert for lands not poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian prince, provided he would take poſſeſſion of them in ſix years. With this encouragement he ſet ſail for America in 1583, where he diſcovered St John's harbour, but was loſt in a ſtorm on his return to England. Next year, however, two other patents were granted by queen Elizabeth, one to Adrian Gilbert, the other to Sir Walter Raleigh. The latter anchored in the mouth of the Roanoke, and took poſſeſſion of the country by the name of Virginia, which till now had been known by that of Florida; and, for ſome time after this ſettlement, Virginia became a general name for the whole continent of North America. A colony was ſent out next year to the ſame country, under captain Ralph Lane, but they were reduced to ſuch diſtreſs, that they 1576. 1584. 1585.

muſt

1586. muſt all have periſhed, had not Sir Francis Drake accidently arrived in the country, and taken them aboard his fleet for England. A ſecond colony of 5c people was left by Sir Richard Grenville only a fortnight after the others had left the place; but not one of this ſecond company was found next year, when he arrived once
1587. more at Virginia, and left a colony of 115 perſons. All theſe in like manner periſhed by famine, or were maſſacred by the Indians, ſo that not one remained alive in 1590, when governor White, who had ſettled the laſt colony, returned with recruits. Another attempt was made in 1602, and Elizabeth Iſland was fixed upon as the place for the colony's reſidence; but the courage of thoſe who were to be left behind now failed them, ſo that they returned to England. A
1603. fifth attempt was no more ſucceſsful. Martin Pring and William Brown being ſent out to this country by Sir Walter Raleigh, to make diſcoveries, ſtaid ſeven weeks, during which time they loaded one of their ſhips with ſaſſafras. Bartholomew Gilbert was then ſent in queſt of the laſt colony; but he and four of his men being killed in a ſkirmiſh with the Indians, the reſt immediately returned to England.

Thus of all the European nations, none but the Spaniards alone had been ſucceſsful in eſtabliſhing colonies in the New World, though they had attempted it to the utmoſt of their power for upwards of a century. The attempts for this purpoſe, however, were by no means given up, nor was the eſtabliſhment of ſuch colonies at all accounted impracticable. So far from this, the French king in 1603 granted a patent in favour of de Mons for all the country from the 41ſt to the 46th degree of
1606. north latitude, under the name of *Acadia*; and three years after, James I. of Britain divided Virginia into two colonies, the one including all the country between the 34th and 41ſt degrees of north latitude, and the other that which lies between the 38th and 45th degrees. The former, named South Virginia, was given to the London Company; the other, named North Virginia, was granted to the Plymouth Company.

Theſe patents were evidently inconſiſtent with each other, as both of them included the country between the 38th and 41ſt degrees of latitude; nevertheleſs, on theſe contradictory authorities, both companies began to form ſettlements. A colony was ſent out by the London Company, under Mr Piercy, brother to the earl of Northumberland, who diſcovered James's River; and in the mean time, the Plymouth Company ſent out Mr Henry Challons, with a veſſel of 55 tons burthen, to plant a colony in North Virginia. The latter was taken by a Spaniſh fleet,
1607. and carried priſoner to Spain; and next year the London Company ſent out captain Chriſtopher Newport, with three veſſels, to South Virginia, under whom the firſt town was erected by the Engliſh, which, from the name of the ſovereign, was called *James Town*. This ſettlement became permanent; but the attempts of the Plymouth Company were leſs ſucceſsful; and the colony which they ſent out, being diſheartened by the ſeverity of the winter, all returned, making ſuch an unfavourable report of the climate, that no more adventurers appeared for ſeveral years who had courage to undertake the taſk of ſettling in the country.

New York and Long Iſland were diſcovered by Henry Hudſon, ſent out by order of king James in 1608 or 1609, and from him Hudſon's River took the name which it ſtill bears. Hudſon ſold his right to the Dutch;

Dutch; but their hiſtorians pretend, that he was ſent out by the Eaſt India Company in 1609 to diſcover a north-weſt paſſage to China; and that, having firſt diſcovered Delaware Bay, he came to Hudſon's River, and ſailed up to the length of 43 degrees north latitude.

In 1610 he took a ſecond voyage to this country, to which the Dutch gave the name of the New Netherlands; and, four years after, they granted a patent to ſome merchants for an excluſive trade on the north river, building at the ſame time a fort on the weſt ſide near Albany; and from this time we may date the ſettlement of New York. 1614.

The continent of North America was now quickly furniſhed with colonies from Europe. A French ſettlement had been begun at Quebec in Canada in the year 1608. St Croix, Mount Manſel, and Port Royal, were ſettled about the ſame time; but the Virginians, hearing that the French had ſettled within their limits, ſent captain Argal to diſlodge them, which was done very effectually, ſo that only Quebec was left remaining of all the ſettlements they had erected. A ſmall ſettlement of only 40 planters, under governor John Guy, had been made at Conception Bay in Newfoundland. 1613. 1610.

In 1614, the country, till this time called North Virginia, received the name of *New England*, from captain Smith who had explored ſeveral parts of the coaſt. He had firſt ſet out on an expedition to make experiments on a gold and copper mine ſaid to exiſt in that country; but, in caſe he ſhould fail in this, his orders were to fiſh, and trade with the natives. In April he reached the iſland of Monaghigan, in north latitude 43° 30′, where he was directed to ſtay, with 10 men, to try the whale fiſhery; but meeting with a diſappointment in this, he built ſeven boats, in which 37 men made a very ſucceſsful fiſhing voyage. The captain himſelf in the mean time coaſted from Penobſcot to Sagadahok, and all the way to Acomak, where he ſkirmiſhed with ſome Indians. From thence having proceeded to Cape Cod, he put an end to his voyage, and returned to Monaghigan. During this voyage he found two French ſhips in the Bay of Maſſachuſets, who had remained there ſix weeks, during which time they had traded very advantageouſly with the Indians, of whom there were then ſuppoſed to be 3000 on the Maſſachuſets iſlands. On his departure he left one of the ſhips under the command of a captain Thomas Hunt, to fit out for a voyage to Spain; but after his departure, the captain, having invited a number of Indians aboard his ſhip, perfidiouſly carried off 20 of them to Malaga, where he ſold them for ſlaves; by which piece of treachery the reſt were ſo exaſperated, that all commercial intercourſe betwixt them and the Engliſh was rendered exceedingly precarious and dangerous.

The Plymouth company, who had hitherto been ſo unſucceſsful, now made many attempts to ſettle a colony in New England; but without ſucceſs. No permanent eſtabliſhment was made there till the year 1620, when part of the congregation of one Mr Robinſon, who had fled from perſecution on account of their religion, and remained for ſome time in Holland, came over to New England, and ſettled at Plymouth. Next year the Plymouth council granted captain John Maſon, a part of the preſent ſtate of New Hampſhire; and, two years after, a ſmall colony ſettled down near the mouth of the Piſtataqua river. Five years after, a colony of Swedes and Finlanders landed at Cape Henlopen, and purchaſed from the Indians the whole country lying between 1614. 1620. 1621. 1623. 1628.

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1628. Next year Sir Henry Boſwel, and five others, purchaſed, from the council of New England a large tract of territory round Maſſachuſets Bay. The firſt Engliſh ſettlement in this part of the country

1369. was made in the month of June following, by captain John Endicot, who took up his reſidence at a place called *Naumkeag*, now Salem. Plymouth indeed had been ſettled eight years before, but it was at this time a ſeparate colony, and was not included in that of Maſſachuſets Bay till the year 1691.

1633. Maryland was ſettled by lord Baltimore in 1633; he having obtained a charter for this purpoſe from Charles I. and being perſecuted on account of his religion, which was the Roman Catholic, he came over to this country, which he named *Maryland*, in honour of the queen Henrietta Maria.

1631. Two years before the ſettlement of Maryland, a grant had been given of the preſent ſtate of Connecticut, by Robert earl of Warwick, preſident of the council of Plymouth, to lords Say and Seal, Brook, and others; and, in conſequence of this, a ſettlement was made by Mr Fenwick at the mouth of the river Connecticut, which he named

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1664. On the 20 March 1664, Charles the ſecond granted to the duke of York, what is called New Jerſey, then a part of a large tract of country known by the name of New Netherland. Some parts of New Jerſey were ſettled by the Dutch as early as about 1615.

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The proprietary government in Carolina, was attended with ſo many inconveniencies, and occaſioned ſuch violent diſſentions among the ſettlers, that the parliament of Great Britain was induced to take the province under their immediate care. The proprietors (except lord Granville) accepted of L. 22,500 Sterling from the crown for the property and juriſdiction. This agreement was ratified by act of parliament in 1729. A clauſe in this act, reſerved to lord Granville, his eighth ſhare of the property and arrears of quit rents, which continued legally veſted in his family, till the revolution in 1776. Lord Granville's ſhare made a part of the preſent ſtate of North Carolina. About the year 1729, the extenſive territory belonging to the proprietors was divided into North and South Carolina. They remained ſeparate royal governments, until they became independent ſtates. 1729.

For the relief of poor indigent people of Great Britain and Ireland, and for the ſecurity of Carolina, a project was formed for planting a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha. Accordingly application being made to king George the ſecond, he iſſued letters patent, bearing date June 9th 1732, for legally carrying into execution the benevolent plan. In honour of the king, who greatly encouraged the plan, they called the new province Georgia. Twenty one truſtees were appointed to conduct the affairs relating to the ſettlement of the province. The November following, one hundred and fifteen perſons, one of whom was general Oglethorpe, embarked for Georgia, where they arrived, and landed at Yamacraw. In exploring the country, they found an elevated pleaſant ſpot of ground, on the bank of a navigable river, upon which they marked out a town, and from the Indian name of the river which paſſed by it, called it Savannah. From this period we may date the ſettlement of Georgia.

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The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed by New York and New Hampſhire. When hoſtilities commenced between Great Britain and her colonies, the inhabitants conſidering themſelves as in a ſtate of nature, and not within any legal juriſdiction, aſſociated and formed for themſelves a conſtitution of civil government. Under this conſtitution they have ever ſince continued to exerciſe all the powers of an independant ſtate. Although Vermont has not been admitted into union with the other ſtates, nor her juriſdiction acknowledged to be legal by the ſtate of New York, yet we may venture to date her political exiſtence as a ſeparate government, from the year 1777, becauſe, ſince that time, Vermont has to all intents and purpoſes been a ſovereign and independent ſtate. The extenſive tract of country lying north-weſt of the Ohio river, within the limits of the United 1777.

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1787. States, was erected into a ſeparate temporary government by an ordinance of congreſs paſſed the 13th July 1787.

Thus we have given an account of the diſcovery and ſettlement of the continent of America itſelf, with the ſettlement of the different colonies which now conſtitute the United States; and likewiſe the province of Canada ceded by France to Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763. The other colonies in this part of the continent are thoſe of Hudſon's Bay, and Nova Scotia belonging to Britain, with Mexico, Louiſiana, California, &c. belonging to Spain. The latter ſhall be treated of under the head of South America, being ſo connected with the Spaniſh dominions in that continent, that they cannot with propriety be taken ſeparate from one another. Of the latter, the country called Labrador, including Hudſon's Bay, was diſcovered by Captain Frobiſher, as already mentioned, but it was not till near a century after, that an excluſive 1670. charter was granted to a company conſiſting of nine or ten perſons for an excluſive trade to this part of the world, in conſequence of which a few forts have been erected, though by reaſon of the inhoſpitable and barren nature of the country, the whole has ſcarce any title to the name of a colony. Nova Scotia was ſettled in 1749, at the 1749. expence of government, with a view to prevent the French from annoying our other ſettlements in that part of the globe.

Diviſions. The whole continent of America is divided into two great parts, called the northern and ſouthern continents, which we ſhall conſider ſeparately.

NORTH AMERICA

EXTENDS from latitudes unknown, perhaps from the pole itſelf, to the Iſthmus of Darien, in latitude 10° north, and from weſt longitude 60° to 168°, being about 5000 miles in breadth from eaſt to weſt, but its length from north to ſouth is leſs known *. It contains the United States, Weſt Greenland, Britiſh America, and part of Spaniſh America, including the following ſtates and provinces:

* This calculation is made at the parallel of 50 degrees north latitude, where the degree of longitude contains 3857 miles.

	Names of States and Colonies.	Len.	Bre.	Lat. Cap. Tow.	Lon. C. Tow. fr. Philad.	Diſtance fr. Philadelphia.	Ch. Towns.		Number of Inhabitants.	Year when taken
Sep. gov. in the Un. States of Brit. America	New Hampſhire	180	60	43°-5′	3°-54′ E.	468 N. E.	Portſmouth	*	102,000	1787
	Maſſachuſetts	450	164	42 25	3-29 E.	343 N. E.	Boſton	*	360,000	1787
	Rhode Iſland	68	40	41-30	3-24 E.	280 E. N. E.	New Port		51,896	1783
	Connecticut	81	57	41-19	1-56 E.	181 N. E.	New Haven		209,150	1782
	New York	350	300	40-40	1-5 E.	95 E. N. E.	New York		238,897	1786
	New Jerſey	160	52	40 15	0-23 E.	30 N. E.	Trenton		149,435	1784
	Pennſylvania	288	156	39-56	0-00	0	Philadelphia	*	360,000	1787
	Delaware	92	16	39-10	0-25 W.	72 S. S. W.	Dover	*	37,000	1787
	Maryland	134	110	39- 2	1-37 W.	32 S. W.	Annapolis		253,630	1782
	Virginia	758	224	37-40	2-42 W.	276 S. W.	Richmond		567,614	1782
	North Carolina	738	110	36- 4	1-52 W.	442 S. S. W.	Edenton	*	270,000	1787
	South Carolina	200	125	32-35	5-00 W.	814 S. S. W.	Charleſtown	*	180,000	1787
	Georgia	600	250	32-39	7-00 W.	934 S. W.	Auguſta		98,000	1787
	Vermont	155	60	42-42	1-44 E.	299 N. E.	Binnington	*	100,000	1788
	Weſtern territory	1000					Adelphi	*	6,000	1788
	Kentucky		450	39-34	6-30 W.	492 W.	Lexington	*	100,000	1788
	Province of Quebec	750	200	46-55	10-00 W.	947 water W	Quebec			
	Nova Scotia	300	250	44-56	4-56 E.	690 N. N. E.	Halifax			
	Eaſt and Weſt Floridas	600	130	29-51	6-30 W.	925 N. E.	Auguſtine		3,083,622	unknown.
	Louiſiana	Indefinite		29-57	14-40 W.	1146 S. S. W.	New Orleans			
Spain.	New Mexico	do.		36-45	3 32 W.	1646 S. W.	St Fee			
	California	765		26- 5	39-00 W.	2190 W.	St Juan			
	Old Mexico	2700	250	20-00	26-00 W.	3396 W. S. W	Mexico			
						3021 S. W.				

N. B. In the column containing the number of inhabitants, the number marked * are as reckoned in the convention at Philadelphia in 1787, excepting North Carolina, Vermont, Weſtern Territory, and Kentucky, the others are taken from actual enumeration. The diſtances of the ſeveral capitals from Philadelphia are reckoned as the roads run.

The United States were 13 in number at the time of their first association, but are now 16, in consequence of the addition of the three already mentioned, viz. Vermont, the Western Territory, and Kentucky. The following tables exhibit the subdivisions of these states, with the principal towns belonging to each.

NEW ENGLAND

Is divided into five states, viz. 1. New Hampshire, 2. Massachusetts Bay, 3. Rhode Island, 4. Connecticut, and 5. Main.

1. HAMPSHIRE

Contains the following counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Rockingham	Portsmouth and Exeter
Stafford	Dover and Durham
Hillsborough	Amherst
Cheshire	Keen and Charlestown
Grafton	Haveril and Plymouth

Portsmouth is the capital of the state.

2. MASSACHUSETTS BAY

Contains the following counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Suffolk	Boston
Essex	Salem, Ipswich, and Newbury
Middlesex	Charlestown, Cambridge, and Concord
Hampshire	Northampton, Hudley, and Deerfield
Plymouth	Plymouth
Barnstable	Barnstable
Dukes Island	Edgartown and Tisbury
Nantucket Island	Sherburne
Bristol	New Bedford and Taunton
York	York Beddeford
Worcester	Worcester
Cumberland	Portland
Lincoln	Bath, Boothbay, Penobscot, and Goldsboro
Berkshire	Lenox

Boston is the capital of the state.

3. RHODE ISLAND.

This state is divided into five counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Newport	Newport
Washington	Westerly

Kent

Counties.	Chief Cities.
Kent	East Greenwich
Providence	Providence
Briſtol	Briſtol

New Port is the capital of the ſtate.

4. CONNECTICUT

Is divided into eight counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Hartford	Hartford
New Haven	New Haven
New London	New London
Fairfield	Fairfield
Windham	Windham
Litchfield	Litchfield
Middleſex	Middleſex
Tolland	Tolland

New London is the capital of the ſtate.

5. PROVINCE of MAIN

Is divided into three counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Lincoln	Portland, the capital of the whole province.
Cumberland	
York	

NEW YORK.

This ſtate, agreeable to an act of their legiſlature, paſſed March 1788, is divided into 16 counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
New York	New York
Albany	Albany
Suffolk	Eaſt Hampton, Huntingdon
Queen's	Jamaica
King's	Flatbuſh, Brooklyn
Richmond	Richmond
Weſt Cheſter	Bedford, Whiteplains
Orange	Goſhen, Orange
Ulſter	Kingſton
Dutcheſs	Poughkeepſie
Columbia	Hudſon, Kinderkook
Waſhington	Salem
Clinton	Plattſburgh
Montgomery	Johnſton
Cumberland	
Glouceſter	

New York is the capital of the ſtate.

NEW

NEW JERSEY

Is divided into thirteen counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Cape May	
Cumberland	Bridgetown
Salem	Salem
Glouceſter	Woodbury and Glouceſter
Burlington	Burlingtown and Bordentown
Hunderton	Trenton
Suſſex	Newtown
Bergen	Hakkenſak
Eſſex	Newark and Eliſabeth Town
Middleſex	Amboy and Brunſwick
Monmouth	Shrewſbury and Freehold
Somerſet	Boundbrook
Morris	Morriſton

Burlington is the capital of the ſtate.

PENNSYLVANIA

Is divided into twenty counties, viz.

Counties	Chief Towns
Philadelphia City	Philadelphia
Cheſter	Weſt Cheſter
Philadelphia	Philadelphia
Bucks	Newton
Montgomery	Norriſton
Lancaſter	Lancaſter
Dauphin	Louiſburg
Berks	Reading
Northampton	Eaſton
Luzerne	Wilkſborough
York	York
Cumberland	Carliſle
Northumberland	Sunbury
Franklin	Chamberſtown
Bedford	Bedford
Huntingdon	Huntingdon
Weſtmoreland	Greenſburg
Fayette	Union
Waſhington	Waſhington
Allegany	Pittſburg

Philadelphia is the capital of the ſtate.

MARYLAND

Is divided into eighteen counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
St Mary's	St Mary
Somerſet	Snow Hill

Caver

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Calvert	Abington
Montgomery	
Waſhington	
Queen Ann's	Queen's Town
Caroline	
Kent	Cheſter
Charles	Briſtol
Talbot	Oxford
Dorcheſter	Dorſet, or Dorcheſter
Baltimore	Baltimore
Ann, or Arundel	Annapolis
Worceſter	Princeſs Anne
Harford	
Cecil	
Frederick	
Prince George	Maſterkout

Annapolis is the capital of the ſtate.

VIRGINIA

Is divided into 74 counties, viz.

Lincoln, Henry, York, Jefferſon, Pittſylvania, Warwick, Fayette, Halifax, Eliſabeth City, Ohio, Charlotte, Caroline, Moningalia, Prince Edward, King William, Waſhington, Cumberland, King and Queen, Montgomery, Powhatan, Eſſex, Green Briar, Amelia, Middleſex, Hampſhire, Lunenburg, Glouceſter, Berkley, Mecklenburg, Fairfax, Frederick, Brunſwick, Prince William, Shenando, Greeneſville, Stafford, Rockingham, Dinwiddie, King George, Auguſta, Cheſterfield, Richmond, Rockbridge, Prince George, Weſtmoreland, Botetourt, Surry, Northumberland, Loudoun, Suſſex, Lancaſter, Fauquier, Southampton, Accomac, Culpepper, Iſle of Wight, Northampton, Spotſylvania, Nanſemond, Orange, Norfolk, Louiſa, Princeſs Anne, Goochland, Henrico, Fluvanna, Hanover, Albemarle, New Kent, Amherſt, Charles City, Buckingham, James City, Bedford, and Williamſburg.

Williamſburg is the capital of the ſtate,

KENTUCKY

Is divided into 7 counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Jefferſon	Louiſville
Fayette	Lexington
Bourboun	
Mercer	Harrodſtown
Nelſon	Bardſtown
Maddiſon	
Lincoln	

NORTH CAROLINA

Is divided into 59 counties, viz.

Chawan, Currituck, Cambden, Paſquetank, Perquimins, Gates, Hertford, Bertie,

Bertie, Tyrrel, New Hanover, Brunſwick, Cumberland, Robinſon, Dupiin, Beaden, Wayne, Moore, Craven, Beaufort, Carteret, Pitt, Dobbs, Hyde, Jones, Onſlow, Hallifax, Northampton, Martin, Edgecomb, Warren, Franklin, Naſh, Orange, Chatem, Granville, Johnſton, Caſwell, Sampſon, Wake, Guilford, Randolph, Rowan, Mecklenburg, Rockingham, Surry, Montgomery, Anſon, Wilkes, Richmond, Burk, Green, Rutherford, Waſhington, Sullivan, Lincoln, Hawkins, Davidſon, and Sumner.

Wilmington is the capital of the ſtate.

SOUTH CAROLINA

Is divided into 34 counties, viz.

Hilton, Lincoln, Granville, Shrewſbury, Charlſton, Waſhington, Marion, Berkeley, Colleton, Bartholomew, Winyah, Williamſburgh, Kingston, Liberty, Lewiſburg, Orange, Lexington, Winton, Clarendon, Richland, Cleremont, Lancaſter, York, Cheſter, Abbeville, Edgefield, Newbury, Union, Laurens, Spartanburgh, Greenville, Marlborough, Cheſterfield, and Darlington.

Charleſtown is the capital of the ſtate.

GEORGIA.

That part of the ſtate, which has been laid out in counties, is divided as follows, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Chatham	Savannah
Effingham	Ebenezer
Burke	Wayneſburg and Louiſville
Richmond	Auguſta
Wilkes	Waſhington
Liberty	Sunbury
Glynn	Brunſwick
Camden	St Patrick
Waſhington	Golphinton
Greene	Greenſburg
Franklin	

Augſta is the capital of the ſtate.

VERMONT,

Is divided into ſeven counties, viz.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Bennington	Bennington
Rutland	
Anddiſon	
Windham	
Chittendon	
Orange	
Windſor	

Air and Climate. In a country ſo very extenſive as that of which we now treat, it muſt be evident that a great variety in this reſpect is to be looked for; but the air and climate of North America have ſome peculiarities not to be met with on the eaſtern continent. Here there is not

only a much greater comparative degree of cold, even in thoſe parts which, by their ſituation, we might reaſonably expect to be warm; but there is a ſtrange intermixture of heat and cold, with an unſteadineſs and variation of the weather, which at firſt appears very ſurpriſing. This is to be accounted for principally from two cauſes. 1. The great extent of the American continent to the north; and, 2. The vaſt tracts of uninhabited and uncultivated ground, which lie towards the middle of the broadeſt part of it. This extent of land is likewiſe unfavourably diſpoſed for the production of heat, becoming broader towards the north, and being full of very high mountains where the ſnow lies perpetually. The wind, by blowing over this frozen tract of country, becomes exceedingly ſharp and piercing; and this cold air, impelled among that of the ſouthern regions, frequently produces ſudden chills, with the moſt extraordinary and ſeemingly capricious changes of weather.

Another peculiarity of the American climate is its exceſſive moiſture. On ſome parts of the weſtern coaſt indeed, rain is unknown; but in general the American climate is as moiſt as it is cold. The cauſe of this is evidently the vaſt oceans on the eaſt and weſt ſides of it, with the huge mountains which run along the internal parts. Hence, in ſome places where the continent is narrow, as about the Iſthmus of Darien, the rains are in a manner continual, and accompanied with ſuch thunder and lightning as are not to be paralleled in any part of the world beſides; and from which cauſes theſe parts are at ſome ſeaſons of the year uninhabitable.

Mountains. Theſe are ſo numerous, that it is in vain to attempt any account of them. The moſt remarkable are, 1. The Alleghany Mountains, which run from 37 to 42 degrees north latitude. 2. The Blue Ridge, or South Mountains. 3. The White Mountains, in New Hampſhire, ſo called from their being always covered with ſnow, and thus making a ſplendid appearance at a diſtance. Theſe are about 5500 feet in height. 4. The Kittatinny Mountains. 5. The Endleſs mountains. 6. Kaats-Kill Mountains. 7. The South weſt Mountains, among which York river takes its riſe. 8. The Ouaſioto Mountains are laid down by governor Pownall, in his map of North America publiſhed in 1755, extending from 37 to 40° 30′ north latitude, and between 80 and 86° weſt longitude, through which, for about 30 or 40 miles, there is not as yet any occupied path. 9. The Cuſhietunk Mountains. 10. The Sidling Hill Ridge; and 11. The Great Ridge, or North Mountains.

Rivers. The exceſſive moiſture of the American climate, and the high mountains with which it abounds, produce larger rivers than are to be met with in any other quarter of the globe. The principal North American rivers are, 1. St Laurence, which forms the boundary between Canada and Nova Scotia, and thus may be ſuppoſed to belong to both of theſe provinces. The other rivers, which more properly belong to Nova Scotia are thoſe of St John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and St Croix, which running in a north and ſouth direction, fall into Fundy Bay, or a little to the eaſtward of it. 2. Almoſt all the rivers of Canada are ſwallowed up by the great river St Laurence. This iſſues from the lakes, or ſprings unknown in the interior parts of the continent, and paſſing through ſeveral large pieces of water, each of them emulating an inland ſea in magnitude, takes its courſe to the north-eaſt, waſhing Montreal, and forming afterwards many fertile iſlands as it

paſſes along. At 400 miles diſtance from the ſea it meets the tide, and becomes navigable for large veſſels: at Quebec, which is 320 miles diſtant from the ſea, it becomes ſo broad and deep, that firſt rate ſhips of war may navigate it; and ſuch were made uſe of in the ſiege it ſuſtained by the Britiſh in the war of 1755. It empties itſelf into the ſea by a mouth 90 miles broad at Cape Roſieres, where the ſea is very often boiſterous, and the cold intenſe. The branches of it, which are the other principal rivers of Canada, are the Outtauais, St John's, Seguinay, Deſpraires, and Trois Rivieres. 3. The rivers of New England are the Connecticut, Thames, Patuxent, Merimac, Piſcataivay, Saco, Caſco, Kennebeque, and Penobſcot, which laſt is common to this country with Nova Scotia. 4. In New York are the Hudſon's and Mohawk rivers; the former abounding with excellent harbours, and well ſtored with fiſh. 5. The rivers of New Jerſey are the Delaware, common to it and Penſylvania, Rariton, and Paſſaick. 6. In Pennſylvania are the Suſquehanna, Schuylkill, and Delaware, all of them navigable for large veſſels for a great way up the country, whence the ſtate of Pennſylvania is admirably ſituated for carrying on both an inland and foreign commerce. 7. Maryland has the rivers of Potowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, and Saſſafras. 8. In Virginia are the Potowmac, Rappahannock, James, and York rivers, with many other ſtreams, all of them ſo conveniently ſituated for commerce, that it has been ſaid that every planter in this country has a river at his own door. 9. In Carolina are the Roanoke, or Albemarle rivers, Cape Fear, or Clarendon, Savannah, Padu, Santu, and many others, ſome of which fall into the great river Miſſiſſippi. The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina, however, form but very indifferent harbours, incapable of admitting veſſels above 70 or 80 tons burthen. 10. The Savannah is the principal river of Georgia. 11. The principal river of Florida, and the ſouthern parts of North America, is the Miſſiſſippi, which is juſtly reckoned one of the largeſt in the world. It riſes in the unknown parts of the continent, and has been navigated as high as the fall of St Anthony, about 2400 miles from its mouth. Like the Nile it annually overflows the adjacent country, by reaſon of the melting of the ſnows in thoſe parts where it takes its riſe. The inundation begins in the month of May, and continues till July, overflowing the country from 60 to 90 miles on each ſide. Vaſt numbers of trees are carried down the ſtream during the time of the inundation, and ſticking on ſand banks or mud at the mouth, render its navigation very dangerous.

Lakes. Some of theſe are no leſs remarkable than the rivers already mentioned. The largeſt are thoſe called Lake Superior, the Huron, Erie, Ontario, and Wood lakes. Of theſe the Lake Superior is of greateſt extent, being not leſs than 500 leagues in circumference, having in it ſeveral large iſlands. Ontario, the leaſt, is about 200 leagues round, and the others about 300. In Nova Scotia alſo the lakes are numerous and large, but are not as yet diſtinguiſhed by any particular names.

Face of the Country, Soil and Produce. In a country ſo extenſive, and lying under ſuch a variety of climates, there muſt naturally be expected a proportionable difference in the fertility of the ſoil. In the northern parts called Labrador, or New Britain, nothing can be more dreary and barren; no grain of any kind, nor even the moſt hardy trees being able to withſtand the intenſity of the froſt, and this in the latitude of only 51 degrees.

degrees. The horrid mountains with which the ſoil is encumbered, alſo prove an unſurmountable obſtacle to any cultivation, as, by the perpetual ſnow which covers them, the air is chilled to ſuch a degree, that even the plants which might otherwiſe come to perfection are entirely deſtroyed. In Canada, though the winters are extremely ſevere, the ſoil is generally very fruitful, producing plenty of grain of various kinds, and affording good paſturage for cattle, which are here bred in great numbers. In Nova Scotia the ſoil is leſs fertile, and agriculture has made but very little progreſs; the ground being naturally bad, and the climate exceſſively foggy; which no doubt proceeds in ſome meaſure from the vaſt foreſts with which the whole country is covered. In general, however, it produces hemp and flax, though no kind of grain has been brought to any perfection; nor is the paſturage good. As we proceed to the ſouthward, the ſcene changes entirely. Around Maſſachuſſet's Bay, the ſoil equals the beſt in Britain, and the firſt planters found the graſs upwards of a yard in height. Yet even here the European grains do not come to great perfection; the wheat being liable to be blaſted, and the barley and oats very poor and unproductive. Indian corn thrives extremely, and conſtitutes the principal food of the inhabitants. A kind of beer is alſo brewed from it, which is by no means contemptible, though the common drink is cyder and ſpruce bear. Fruits are met with in the greateſt plenty, inſomuch, that one apple tree has been known to produce 7 barrels of cyder; and 700 or 800 fine peaches have been gathered from a ſingle tree of that kind. The coaſt of America in general, is low and flat, riſing into hills as you go farther up into the country. In the flat parts the ground is very often marſhy, as is the caſe with New York; but the inland parts are endowed with amazing fertility, producing all kinds of grain in the utmoſt abundance, as well as barley, flax, and fruits of all ſorts. In New Jerſey a conſiderable part is ſandy and barren with reſpect to grain, producing, however, pines and cedars; the other parts being equally fertile with the laſt mentioned provinces. From the province of New York, for a conſiderable way ſouthward, the woods abound with wild vines; but none of theſe have ever been cultivated in ſuch a manner as to be of any uſe. In Pennſylvania the ſummer is often intolerably hot, though the winter is ſo ſevere, that the Delaware is ſometimes frozen over in one night. Maryland and Virginia are particularly adapted for the cultivation of tobacco, which, while they remained in ſubjection to Britain, was their principal article of commerce, though now they begin to prefer the raiſing of grain. Virginia, beſides the ordinary productions of grain and fruits, yields ſnakeroot, a valuable medicinal article; the celebrated ginſeng of the Chineſe; and ſome other medicinal ſimples. Flax and hemp are produced in ſuch quantities, as to be exported; though not ſo abundantly as might be expected from the nature of the ſoil, which is extremely fit for producing them. A kind of ſilk alſo grows here ſpontaneouſly, the fibres of which are as ſtrong as hemp. In Carolina the ſoil is ſtill more fertile than in Virginia, inſomuch, that no manure is uſed. Even the worſt ſoil in this country is productive of indigo, and the lands next the ſea, which are low and marſhy, produce rice in great abundance. For about 80 miles inland, the coaſt of Carolina is quite flat, without the leaſt eminence, rock, or almoſt a ſtone to be met with. As you advance, it becomes gradually more elevated, and produces every thing neceſſary or comfortable for human life in the greateſt

perfection. The fineſt flowers and flowering ſhrubs grow here ſpontaneouſly; the European plants thrive with a degree of vigour far beyond what they have in their native countries; and there is not the leaſt doubt that wine, oil, and ſilk, equal to what is produced in the ſouthern parts of Europe, might be raiſed here by proper care. In the back parts, wheat grows extremely well, and yields a very great increaſe. Beſides theſe products, the countries we ſpeak of produce caſſia, ſarſaparilla, and a kind of trees which yield an oil ſaid to be of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds, and to equal the famous balſam of Mecca in this reſpect. Gums of various kinds are alſo produced here. Vaſt quantities of honey are produced in theſe ſouthern provinces, from which the fineſt ſpirits are diſtilled, and a kind of mead made, almoſt as good as Malaga ſack.

Timber of all kinds is produced in the North American continent, but that of the northern provinces is ſuperior to the reſt. All the uncultivated parts of America indeed, are one continued wood, to appearance as old as the world itſelf. Nothing is more apt to ſurpriſe a ſtranger, than the vaſt ſize of the American trees, eſpecially in the ſouthern parts. Their trunks are frequently from 50 to 70 feet high, without a ſingle branch, and above 36 feet in circumference. Canoes and curious pleaſure boats are made of the hollowed trunks of theſe trees, and ſome of the former are capable of containing 30 or 40 barrels of pitch. Almoſt all kinds of timber, which the other parts of the world can afford, are to be met with in America, beſides a vaſt many ſpecies peculiar to the continent itſelf, and which naturaliſts have never yet particularly enumerated. Canada produces two kinds of pines, the one white, and the other red; there are four ſorts of fir, two of cedar and oak, two of mapple, and three of aſh; a great number of beech-trees, with white and red elms, and poplar. The red elms are hollowed out by the Indians into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece of timber, will contain 20 perſons. Other veſſels of this kind are made of the bark ſewed together, with thread made of the inner rhind; the ſeams are daubed over with pitch, or a bituminous matter reſembling it, to prevent their leaking; the ribs being made of boughs of trees. Here is alſo a kind of tree, whoſe fruit is of a very acid nature, and produces vinegar by infuſion in water. The cotton tree has ſeveral fine tufts of flowers on the top, which, when ſhaken in the morning, yield a kind of dew, which may be boiled up into fine ſugar; the ſeed is a kind of pod, filled with the fineſt cotton. The timber of Nova Scotia yields pitch and tar, and is very proper for ſhip-building. That of New England is particulary valuable, and the ſpecies are extremely numerous. Beſides thoſe already mentioned in Canada, it has ſaſſafras, ſumach, hazel, cheſnut, &c. The oak, however, is ſaid to be inferior to that of England; but the firs are immenſely large, and formerly ſupplied the royal navy of England with maſts and yards. Conſiderable quantities of pitch and tar are drawn from their trees, as well as turpentine, from which roſin and oil of turpentine are prepared. Some of them alſo yield gums and valuable balſams; and by reaſon of this vaſt profuſion of timber, ſhip-building forms a conſiderable branch of their trade. In the provinces to the ſouth of New England, the timber is leſs compact and ſolid, ſplits more eaſily, but for this reaſon, is more fit for ſtaves, though not ſo uſeful in ſhip-building.

Metals and Minerals. In Canada it is ſaid that ſilver has ſometimes

been

been met with; and near Quebec is a lead mine. The country likewiſe abounds with coals. No minerals of any value have been diſcovered in Nova Scotia; but excellent iron is found in New England, and ſome other provinces; in the manufacture of which the inhabitants have arrived at conſiderable perfection.

Animals. The variety of theſe on the American continent is much greater than on any part of the old world, by reaſon of the thinneſs of its population; the brute creation having been its only inhabitants, perhaps ſince the flood. In New Britain we meet with the mooſe-deer, reindeer, ſtags, bears, tigers, buffaloes, foxes, &c. and other animals capable of bearing the ſeverity of the climate. All theſe are covered with a ſoft and warm fur, and in winter are ſaid to change their colour to white; even moſt of the fowls being ſubject to this metamorphoſis. The fowls which principally inhabit theſe frozen regions are geeſe, ducks, buſtards, partridges, &c. The laſt are as large as hens, and in ſuch plenty, that 90,000 have been taken in one ſeaſon. Hares alſo are met with in vaſt numbers, inſomuch, that 25,000 have been caught in the ſame ſpace of time at Port Nelſon in Hudſon's Bay. It has been ſaid, and for a long time received as an undoubted fact, that the climate of America is unfavourable to animal life, and that the quadrupeds there always degenerate when imported from other countries, through ſome malignity in the climate; but this is now diſputed; and indeed it is probable, that want of care to preſerve the proper breeds of the cattle is the cauſe of their degeneracy, rather than any thing elſe. If the larger animals degenerate, however, the inſect tribe thrive in proportion. The ſerpents and lizards of America arrive at the moſt incredible ſize, though by reaſon of the cold, the regions about Hudſon's Bay are not infeſted with them, as the more ſouthern countries are. Canada has all the animals to be met with in New Britain, with ſome others, particularly the beaver, not to be found there. The marſhes and lakes of this country abound with theſe creatures, as well as others. Vaſt numbers of the beavers are deſtroyed for the ſake of their furs, which are very valuable; being the beſt material for making hats. The white and the black kind are the ſcarceſt and moſt valuable. The beaver is near four feet long, and weighs 70 pounds, and is ſo ſagacious, that the ſavages imagine it to be a rational animal, and that the ſociety in which they live is governed by a prince. They uſe indeed extraordinary induſtry and art in fabricating their lodgings, which are always at the ſide of ſome lake or river. For this purpoſe they fell large trees with their teeth, and with immenſe labour place them in a proper manner upon one another. They are no leſs aſſiduous in preparing clay, which they put on their tails, and walking on their hinder legs, drag their load along the ground, and plaiſter up the intervals with aſtoniſhing art and perſeverance. When allowed to live to their natural period, they die at the age of 15 or 20 years; but ſuch ſlaughter is continually made among them, that, in all probability, few of them have the good fortune to arrive at this age. They are of various colours, black brown, yellow, white, and ſtraw colour; but it is remarked, that the lighter their colour, the leſs fur they have, and live in warmer climates. Their furs are of two kinds, the dry and the green. The former is the name of the ſkin before it is applied to any uſe; the latter is an appellation beſtowed on thoſe which have been worn by the Indians, and beſmeared with oily ſubſtances. By this operation, the fur receives a kind of unctuous

unctuous property, which is of uſe in the manufacture of hats. From the beaver alſo is obtained the caſtoreum, a black ſubſtance, formerly much uſed in medicine, but now declining in its reputation. It is contained in a bag in the belly of the animal, and was erroneoſly ſuppoſed to be its teſticles. There is a kind of ſmall beaver, called the muſk-rat, met with in this country, whoſe fleſh ſmells very ſtrongly of that perfume. There are alſo wild and rapacious animals in great abundance, as wolves, bears, foxes, &c. Of theſe laſt, ſome are quite black, and their ſkins greatly eſteemed; but they are ſcarce. There is likewiſe a ſpecies of a fine ſilver colour, which is alſo in conſiderable eſteem. The wood-rat of Canada, is likewiſe of a beautiful ſilver colour, with a buſhy tail, and is about twice the bigneſs of the European rat. The female has a kind of pouch below her belly, into which the young retire when apprehenſive of danger, and in which ſhe conſtantly carries them for ſome time after their birth. The *carcajou* is a carnivorous animal, about two feet long, from the ſnout to the tail. The latter is ſo long, that it will go five or ſix times round a man's body. It is ſaid, that by twiſting its tail round the body of an elk, and then faſtening its teeth in the throat of the animal, it can deſtroy this creature ſo much ſtronger than itſelf in a moment. The flying ſquirrel is a very curious animal, and can leap 40 paces at once. It is eaſily tamed, and is very agreeable and ſportive, though much given to ſleep. It can diſtinguiſh its maſter among a number of others, and will take its repoſe in his ſleeve, pocket, or any where near him, being endowed with ſomewhat of the ſagacity of a dog in this reſpect. The pole-cat of Canada has a moſt beautiful fur, being entirely white, except the top of the tail, which is as black as jet. It has no mode of defence from nature, but by its urine, which is ſo nauſeous, that the dogs which purſue it run away on account of the abominable ſmell. There are two ſorts of bears, one black and the other red, but the latter is the more dangerous; neither of them, however, will readily attack any of the human ſpecies, unleſs purſued, or oppreſſed with hunger. They are fierceſt in the month of July, when it is not very ſafe to meet them.

There are here a vaſt number of fowls of different kinds, as eagles, falcons, goſhawks, and other birds of prey. They have alſo vaſt numbers of ſwans, ducks, geeſe, turkies, water-hens, cranes, &c. Their partridges are of various colours, as grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they ſpread out like a fan, and make a beautiful appearance. The fly-bird, or humming-bird, is the ſmalleſt of all the feathered creation, and likewiſe the moſt beautiful. His plumage is adorned with the fineſt colours imaginable, though with all his feathers, he is ſcarce ſuperior in ſize to a large beetle. His wings make a noiſe like the humming of a very large fly.

Canada, notwithſtanding the extreme cold of its winter, is not exempted from the moſt venemous reptile in the world, viz. the rattle ſnake. Some of them are ſaid to grow to the thickneſs of a man's leg, and of a proportionable length. The moſt remarkable particular concerning this animal, is the formation of its tail. This is ſcaly like a coat of mail, on which there grows every year one ring, or row of ſcales; ſo that by the number of its ſcales, we may readily know the age of the animal. It makes a rattling noiſe when it moves, and thus providentially gives warning of its approach, ſo that its bite may be avoided, which is the moſt fatal

fatal perhaps of any animal in the world. Many antidotes have been propoſed for this deadly poiſon, but none can in any degree be depended upon. The beſt remedy that can be applied, is inſtantly to tie a ligature above the part bitten, ſo tight, that the circulation of the blood may be ſtopped, and its return to the heart prevented. The wound ſhould be then ſucked, in order to draw off as much of the poiſon as poſſible; nor is this any way dangerous, as the poiſon does not act on the ſaliva, or juices of the ſtomach, but only when mixed with the blood. Along with this, the ſtrongeſt cordials, and in very large quantities, ſhould be given, particularly ſtrong volatile alkali; for the poiſon ſeems to act by a total ſtoppage of the vital power, and therefore thoſe things which tend moſt to excite this power ſeem to be the moſt likely to preſerve the life of the perſon. This miſchievous animal, however, ſeldom bites animals, unleſs it be provoked, and never without firſt rattling its tail three times round its head. When purſued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itſelf round with its head in the middle, and then darts with great violence againſt the aſſailants. It is chaſed, however, and the fleſh eaten by the Indians, who eſteem it very good.

The ſeas, lakes, and rivers of Canada, produce ſuch multitudes of fiſh, that it has been ſuppoſed that the fiſheries of Canada would be more beneficial than even the fur trade, were they properly managed. An immenſe variety of fiſhes is to be met with in the river St Laurence alone. Beſides many other ſpecies, we meet in this country with ſea-wolves, porpoiſes, ſturgeon, ſalmon, trout, herrings, &c. The ſea-wolf is an amphibious animal, and ſometimes grows to ſuch a ſize, as to weigh 2000 pounds; the fleſh is eſteemed good food, but the principal profit is derived from the oil, of which it yields a great quantity, and which is uſed for ſundry mechanical purpoſes. The ſkins make excellent covers for trunks, and preſerve their freſhneſs better than Morocco leather. They are alſo extremely proper for making boots and ſhoes. The ſea-cow is larger than the former, but has ſome reſemblance to it in ſhape. It has two teeth, as long and thick as a man's arm, which are very fine ivory, as well as the reſt of the teeth. The porpoiſes are ſo large, that ſome of them afford a hogſhead of oil; and waiſtcoats made of their ſkins are ſaid to be muſket proof. The chouraſou is about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, covered with ſcales impenetrable even by a dagger; the colour is a ſilver grey, having a long bony ſubſtance, ragged at the edges, growing out of its mouth. This fiſh has the dexterity to make fowls his prey, by the following ſtratagem. He conceals himſelf among the reeds and buſhes near the water's edge, in ſuch a manner that nothing appears but the weapon juſt mentioned, which has the exact appearance of a withered reed. The birds, deceived by this appearance, come and perch upon it, on which the fiſh jumps upon them ſo ſuddenly, that they ſeldom can get away from him. Some of the rivers produce crocodiles, equally dangerous with thoſe of the Nile. Nova Scotia has all the animals of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and others. Incredible ſhoals of fiſh enter the rivers in the month of March; in April the herrings come up, and the ſalmon and ſturgeon in May. Cape Sable coaſt has a continued range of cod-fiſhing banks, with many excellent harbours along it. In New England the mooſe deer particularly abound. Theſe creatures are about the ſize of a bull, with a neck reſembling that of a ſtag; the horns being generally about five feet between

between the tips. A large one, in his common walk, has been known to ſtep over a gate five feet high. When going through a thicket, or under the boughs of a ſpreading tree, he lays his horns upon his neck, to keep them from being entangled. Theſe monſtrous horns are renewed annually. All the other animals mentioned in the countries already deſcribed, are to be met with in New England. There are vaſt numbers of fowls of different kinds; and the reptiles are exceſſively large and diſagreeable. The frogs and toads grow to a vaſt ſize, and, with the owls, make a monſtrous noiſe at night Many different kinds of whales are to be met with in the New England ſeas, of which vaſt numbers are taken. They alſo ſend ſome ſhips annually to Greenland, in order to proſecute the fiſhery there. There were no domeſtic animals, ſuch as horſes, cows, ſheep, or hogs in America, before they were imported thither by the Europeans. At preſent, however, they have multiplied to ſuch a degree, that they run wild in the woods, eſpecially in the ſouthern parts. So great was the plenty of all kinds of domeſtic animals in Virginia, that before the war with the colonies, beef and pork were ſold from one penny to twopence per pound; the fatteſt pullets at ſixpence; chickens at 3 or 4 ſhillings per dozen; geeſe at ten-pence, and turkies at 18 pence each. The nightingales of Virginia are exceſſively beautiful; being covered with plumage of a blue and crimſon colour. The ſong of the mocking-bird is ſuppoſed to excell every other in the world, and he is likewiſe capable of imitating that of every other ſinging bird. In this country alſo is found the beautiful humming-bird formerly mentiond, who appears clothed in gold, ſcarlet, and green, and extracts his nouriſhment from the flowers like a bee. All the animals of Virginia, and even a ſtill greater abundance, are met with in the Carolinas. Here the black cattle have multiplied ſo prodigiouſly, that it is very common to have 200 or 300 cows, and ſome upwards of a 1000. Theſe range through the woods at pleaſure during the day-time; but, as the calves are kept at home in ſeparate fences, the cows conſtantly return to them at night. It is ſurpriſing that theſe animals ſhould have multiplied ſo much, as the woods are filled with wolves, tigers, and panthers; but it is obſervable, that theſe creatures are much leſs fierce in America, than in the continents of Aſia and Africa.

Inhabitants. The original inhabitants of North America ſeem to be diſtinguiſhed beyond all the reſt of mankind for their horrid degeneracy from humanity, their monſtrous barbariſm, and in ſhort every thing that can diſgrace human nature. Accuſtomed to range in boundleſs foreſts, they ſeem to have imbibed the nature of wild beaſts, and to conſider themſelves as only born for deſtroying the reſt of the human ſpecies. Excepting the occupation of hunting, the only employment of the men is war, which often ariſes from the ſlighteſt cauſes, and very frequently is taken up without any cauſe at all. The cauſes they give for commencing hoſtilities are to revenge the death of ſome of their friends, or to procure priſoners to aſſiſt them in hunting. War therefore is not always undertaken at the deſire of the whole community, but frequently by a few private adventurers. At any rate, no perſon is compelled to go; but when a war is undertaken by the community at large, all the young men, who wiſh to go on the expedition, give each a bite of wood to the chief, who is to be their leader, as a token of their inclination to go with him. The chief himſelf faſts for ſeveral days, withdraws from company, and is particularly careful to obſerve his dreams, which he

conſiders as ominous of his good or bad ſucceſs. The war kettle is then ſet upon the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which in former times probably was literally the caſe, and indeed, at this day ſeems to be but little better. After the feaſt on this occaſion, they diſpatch a large ſhell, or porcelane, to their allies, inviting them to come and drink the blood of their enemies along with them. Having thus finiſhed their ceremonies, they rub their faces with charcoal, intermixed with ſtreaks of vermilion, exchange clothes with their friends, and give their ornaments to the women, who accompany them to a conſiderable diſtance.

As theſe ſavages, by reaſon of their continual outrages upon one another, are but few in number, they carry on their wars not ſo much by open force as by ſurpriſe, treachery, and the moſt diabolical aſſaſſinations. Living perpetually in the foreſts, their ſenſes become acute beyond meaſure in certain reſpects. They are able to trace their enemies at a very great diſtance; and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, though ſo ſlight that they would be utterly imperceptible by an European, they are able not only to follow them, but to diſtinguiſh how many have paſſed that way. When they make war upon one another therefore, as each party has to do with adverſaries equal to themſelves in ſagacity, they are obliged to uſe the utmoſt precaution to avoid being diſcovered. They light no fires either to warm themſelves or dreſs their victuals; they travel only in the night time, and if they can meet with a rivulet, or ſhallow part of a river, they will travel along in the water as far as poſſible, that there may be no poſſibility of detecting them. When obliged to march on dry ground, the laſt of them carefully cover the tracks of the reſt with leaves, leſt any of their adverſaries ſhould thus find them out. Thus they frequently enter the villages of their enemies unſuſpected, when a moſt dreadful ſcene of bloodſhed and maſſacre commences; neither ſex nor age eſcaping the cruelty of theſe diabolical warriors. If the oppoſite party, however, happen to be on their guard, a battle takes place, carried on with circumſtances of equal barbarity and ferocity with thoſe already mentioned. At the concluſion of the campaign the priſoners are brought home to the territories of the reſpective parties, and treated in ſuch a manner as we could ſcarce imagine that human creatures could be induced to treat one another. The priſoners belong to the individuals who have taken them in battle; and each attends his captive to a cottage where he is offered to ſupply the loſs of one of their own number who has periſhed in battle. If he happens to be agreeable to the perſons to whom he is offered, they inſtantly admit him as one of their family; but, if otherwiſe, he is condemned to death, and it is no longer in the power even of their chiefs to ſave him. The dreadful ceremony of torturing their priſoners to death then commences, and to this even the torments of the inquiſition itſelf appear mild and gentle. The priſoners devoted to deſtruction are tied to a ſtake, their nails are plucked off from their fingers, and the fleſh torn from the bones by the teeth of the wretches who ſurround them. Their toes are pounded between ſtones; gaſhes cut in the fleſhy parts of their body, and immediately ſeared with a red hot iron; other gaſhes are cut, and ſeared in like manner; the intervening pieces of fleſh cut out and devoured; the nerves and tendons are twiſted round an iron, pulled, ſnapped, and deſtroyed by every method they can invent, while their limbs are ſtretched in like manner to increaſe their

torment as much as poſſible. Sometimes they take it into their heads to unbind the poor wretches whom they have thus mangled, who, inſtantly fall into ſo profound a ſleep, that their tormenters are frequently obliged to apply fire to their bodies in order to awake them and renew their ſufferings. It is painful to relate further circumſtances of ſuch complicated cruelty, the above being abundantly ſufficient to fill with horror every mind ſuſceptible in the leaſt of the feelings of humanity. Suffice it to ſay, therefore, that having wearied themſelves with the moſt monſtrous cruelties that can be conceived, they at laſt put an end to the ſufferings of thoſe unhappy perſons who are the objects of them; after which they throw the bodies into their kettles, and make a feaſt of their fleſh.

In their domeſtic affairs the Indians do not appear in a more amiable light. The women, who among all barbarous nations are very ſeverely treated, here ſuffer to ſuch a degree, that many of them deſtroy their female children as ſoon as they come into the world, merely to prevent them from ſuffering the hardſhips to which they themſelves have been expoſed; nor is it at all uncommon for them to put an end to their own lives. In other reſpects the Indians are cowardly, indolent, ignorant, and ſtupid to the laſt degree; inſomuch, that the worſt of the Africans are greatly their ſuperiors in knowledge, activity, and induſtry. In their dealings with other nations, they are faithleſs, ever ready to make war, and ſuch indeed is their thirſt for blood, that no perſon who has ever given an Indian the ſmalleſt offence can reckon himſelf ſecure; nor is it poſſible for the Europeans in America, whoſe country borders upon theirs, to live in ſafety but by keeping them under perpetual dread of the ſevereſt military execution. Conſidering this as the general character of the native Americans, for thoſe of the ſouthern continent, before their ſubjection by the Spaniards, were not one jot better, we may be more diſpoſed to make allowance for the behaviour of the latter when they invaded that country; though indeed no excuſe can juſtly be made for the actions they are ſaid to have committed, and of which we ſhall give an account in our hiſtory of that continent.

The European inhabitants of America differ nothing from thoſe of the countries from whence they came. Whatever difference there is muſt be attributed to the ſuperior plenty which the inhabitants enjoy, ſo that, at leaſt before the late unhappy war with the colonies, a degree of hoſpitality prevailed, utterly unknown among the moſt civilized nations of Europe. Beggars were never heard of among them; and we have been witneſſes to the ſurpriſe expreſſed by ſome Americans at the ſight of poor people aſking charity in this country. How matters ſtand in this reſpect at preſent we cannot exactly ſay; though, from ſome private accounts with which we have been favoured, there is reaſon to hope that the ſame happineſs and plenty ſtill prevails, and that there is ſtill one part of the world where miſery and poverty dare not ſhew their faces. According to the accounts juſt mentioned, many of the counties in Virginia have been added ſince the concluſion of the laſt war; and the population of that, and all the other ſtates, makes ſuch a rapid progreſs, as muſt aſtoniſh an European reader. Land is procured with ſo little difficulty, that none of the objections to matrimony, from the cares of life, ſo common in this and other countries of Europe, can take place in America. Hence it is uncommon to find a young man unmarried at the age of 20, unleſs in the towns on the ſea-coaſt; and it is computed that

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the number of inhabitants is doubled every 20 years, exclusive of emigrations from Europe. A vast tract of ground is therefore annually brought into cultivation, the produce of which being much more than sufficient for the consumpt of the inhabitants, must be exported to Europe or other countries, and consequently will soon turn the balance of trade in favour of the United States. Nor is this to be reckoned any disadvantage to the mother country; for, along with the increase of population in America, there is a proportionable increase in the demand for British manufactures, whose superior cheapness and quality set them far beyond those of other nations, and have already secured almost the whole of the American trade to Great Britain. At the same time, the cheapness of land on the western continent was for a long time an insuperable obstacle to American manufactures, as no person who can purchase 1000 acres of ground for L. 30 will think of setting up a manufacture; and thus the exports from Britain to the United States are already double what they were in the year 1774.

Principal Towns. Quebec, the capital of Canada, is upwards of 300 miles from the sea, situated at the conflux of the great river St Laurence, with another named St Charles, or the Little River, upon a rock composed of slate and marble. It consists of two towns, the upper and lower; the houses in both being tolerably well built of stone. It has strong, but irregular fortifications, with a fine citadel where the governor resides. The river below the town is from 12 to 15 miles broad, but above it suddenly contracts itself to a single mile: the haven is convenient, directly opposite to the town, and having about five fathom under water. The tides rise 25 feet about the times of the equinox. The number of inhabitants is computed to be between 12 and 15,000. The other places of consequence in Canada are Montreal and Trois Rivieres. The former stands on an island in the river St Laurence, about 20 miles long and 12 broad, at the foot of a mountain of the same name, about a mile and an half from the southern shore. It is built in the form of an oblong square, and has fine regular streets, with handsome houses, almost all of which may be seen at once from the hill just mentioned. It is well fortified, and almost as large as Quebec. About half way between this place and Quebec stands the city of Trois Rivieres, taking its name from its standing at the conflux of three rivers, which fall into St Laurence, and by means of which it carries on a considerable trade with the Indians.

The only town of any consequence in Nova Scotia is Halifax the capital. It is conveniently situated on Chebucto Bay, and has a communication, by means of navigable rivers, or the sea, with many parts of the province; so that it is enabled to carry on a considerable commerce. Since the conclusion of the war the number of inhabitants in this province have been considerably augmented by the emigrations of the loyalists from the United States; and some new towns have been erected by them, which, in a little time, may come to be of importance.

The capital of New England is Boston, situated on a peninsula about nine miles from the mouth of Massachusets Bay. The access is dangerous, there being several rocks, and upwards of a dozen of small islands at the mouth of the bay; so that there is but one safe channel for ships to sail through, and that so narrow, that two ships can scarcely pass abreast; but within the island the harbour becomes very spacious, and capable of containing 300 sail. The town is built mostly round the har-

bour, and has the form of a half moon. It is well built and ſpacious; and carries on a very conſiderable trade. In 1784, a bridge was built between Charleſtown, ſituated on the north ſide of the bay, and this place, ſo that the communication on that ſide is eaſy. The next town to Boſton is Cambridge, which lies at the diſtance of about four miles, and has an univerſity with a well furniſhed library. This, as well as the other towns of inferior note in New England, is neat and well built.

New York, the capital of the province of that name, is ſituated at the mouth of Hudſon's river. It is about a mile long, and a quarter of a mile in breadth, defended by a fort and battery. The city is irregularly built; but the houſes are elegant, and afford a fine proſpect. Its ſituation, at the mouth of the river juſt mentioned, renders it very convenient for trade, that river being here three miles broad, and having a communication with the lakes of Canada. A fourth part of it was burnt down by ſome incendiaries ſoon after being taken by the king's troops in the year 1776. A college was erected here by act of parliament in 1755.

Perth-Amboy and Burlington are the two principal towns of New Jerſey; the latter being pleaſantly ſeated on the Delaware, at about the diſtance of 20 miles from Philadelphia. The former has a good port, ſafe and convenient for ſhips, of which it can contain a great number.

Philadelphia, the capital of Pennſylvania, and of the United States, ſtands on the conflux of the rivers Delaware and Schuylkill, about 85 miles from the ſea, and where the former is about a mile broad. The city itſelf extends between the two rivers for about two miles in length, and was built on the plan of ancient Babylon. Every quarter of it is a complete ſquare of eight acres, with one in the middle of 10 acres, ſurrounded by the town-houſe and other public buildings. The high ſtreet runs the whole length of the town, being about 100 feet wide. There are 19 ſtreets parallel to it, croſſed by others at right angles, each of them 30 feet broad, and communicating with canals from the two rivers, which add greatly to the beauty as well as the healthineſs of the city. There are excellent barracks, and ſome very fine public buildings. The governor's houſe is looked upon to be the beſt private building in America. There are many other towns in this ſtate of conſiderable importance, as German-Town, Radnor, Oxford, and Cheſter.

The principal town in the ſouthern colonies is Charleſtown, the capital of South Carolina. It ſtands on a peninſula, formed by the junction of the two rivers Aſhley and Cowper, which are navigable for 20 miles farther up. The harbour is difficult of entrance, by reaſon of a bar which cannot be paſſed by veſſels of more than 200 tons burthen. It is ſtrongly fortified both by nature and art, and made a vigorous reſiſtance in the firſt attack made upon it during the American war. The houſes are handſome, and well built; but the rents here, as well as in Philadelphia, are extremely high. A conſiderable trade is carried on from this place in rice, tar, pitch, and roſin, indigo, lumber, Indian corn, &c.

Curioſities. Theſe are entirely of the natural kind in this part of the world, the inhabitants having been always too ſavage to leave any traces of their works to poſterity. A great number of curious animals are to be met with, inſects and fiſhes, as well as birds and beaſts. The vegetable creation offers alſo a vaſt field for ſpeculation and entertainment;

ment; but above all, the ſtupendous cataracts, down which ſome of their rivers precipitate themſelves, form the moſt grand and magnificent ſpectacles. Of theſe the cataract of Niagara, in the river St Laurence, juſtly claims the firſt place. This lies between the lakes Erie and Ontario, the river being here about half a mile wide, and precipitating itſelf from a rock in the form of a creſcent, and about 140 feet high. For a conſiderable way above, the water has a great deſcent, ſo that if one ſtands at the fall, and looks up the river, it appears quite ſteep, and as if running down the ſide of a hill. Thus its velocity is augmented to ſuch a degree, that by the time it arrives at the fall, it appears to fly with the ſwiftneſs of an arrow. With ſuch immenſe force, joined to what it acquires by falling from ſo great an height, it daſhes in an inconceivable manner after it has got to the bottom. So great is the agitation, that the whole looks as white as ſnow, and a vaſt quantity of ſmall drops riſing to a great height in the air, makes it always appear as if involved in a cloud of miſt, which exhibits the appearance of a rainbow when viewed in a proper poſition when the ſun ſhines. Great numbers of beaſts, attempting to ſwim acroſs the ſtream, at too ſmall a diſtance from the cataract, are hurried down by it, and daſhed to pieces. Many of the water-fowl alſo ſhare the ſame fate; for, amuſing themſelves with gliding gently down the ſtream where the motion is not very rapid, they inſenſibly get to thoſe parts where it becomes ſo ſwift that they cannot riſe, though they are obſerved to ſtruggle exceſſively for this purpoſe. Sometimes the Indians, either through careleſſneſs or drunkenneſs, are hurried down in their canoes, and killed. There are many other cataracts in different parts, where rivers of conſiderable magnitude precipitate themſelves from high rocks, but none ſo tremendous as that juſt mentioned. The paſſage of the river Connecticut in New England, through a ſtrait called the *Narrows*, affords a ſpectacle equally terrible, though of a ſomewhat different kind. Here the river is confined between two mountains into a channel of no more than 15 feet in breadth, though above the ſtrait it ſometimes overflows its banks to the breadth of 15 miles. The violence of its current is ſaid to be altogether beyond imagination or deſcription, and the ſight is ſo truly tremendous, that it requires a perſon of very great reſolution to bear it. Its exceſſive velocity deprives it, while in this paſſage, of all the apparent properties of a fluid, inſomuch, that the moſt violent ſtroke with an iron crow cannot penetrate it, but the inſtrument meets with a reſiſtance as from a ſolid rock. Stones, iron, lead, and wood float promiſcuouſly on the ſurface of this impetuous ſtream, the force of which is ſuppoſed not to be inferior to lightning; and large pieces of timber, when hurried through it, if they happen to touch the ſides, are not only ſhivered to pieces, but torn in ſuch a manner as to reſemble coarſe thread. If any thing happens to eſcape this danger, it ſhoots through the paſſage in an inſtant, as was the caſe with an Indian woman in a canoe. She had ſuffered herſelf to come too near the upper part of the ſtrait; when, finding no poſſibility of eſcape, ſhe prepared for the worſt, by drinking a bottle of rum ſhe had with her in the boat. In the ſtate of inſenſibility which this produced, the canoe darted through the paſſage, and got into the navigable part of the river. Here ſhe was found by ſome Britiſh coloniſts; whō, having aſked her how ſhe could ſpend her time ſo ill as to drink ſuch a quantity of rum in the view of immediate death, ſhe replied, that indeed it was too much, but ſhe thought it a pity to

loſe

loſe the rum, and thus ſhe had "*ſaved it all.*" A very remarkable curioſity, called the *Natural Bridge*, is met with in Virginia. It is ſituated on the declivity of a hill, which appears to have ſuffered from ſome great convulſion of nature. The arch is ſomewhat of the ſemi-elliptic form; but the larger axis of the ellipſis, which would be the chord of the arch, is many times longer than the tranſverſe. It is about 45 feet wide at bottom, and 90 at top; the depth, according to ſome meaſurements, 270 feet, but according to others only 205. Its breadth in the middle is about 60 feet, but increaſes towards the ends; the maſs at the top is about 40 feet in thickneſs, compoſed of ſolid rock covered with earth, of depth ſufficient to nouriſh very large trees which grow upon it. It is furniſhed in ſome places with a natural parapet of rock; but ſo tremendous is the gulf below, that few have the courage to look over. Standing in the valley below the bridge, the view is exceſſively grand and ſublime, without any of that terrific appearance which diſturbs the ſpectator when looking down from the top. Underneath there runs a ſtream of water ſufficient, though not above two miles from the fountain, to turn a griſt mill. It is named *Cedar Creek*, and is a branch of James's River. There is another bridge ſimilar to this in the ſame country, over a ſtream called Stock-Creek.

Conſtitution and Government. Till the commencement of the war of 1775, the United States were in ſubjection to Britain, and under the juriſdiction of governors ſent from this country; but, in the year 1776, having declared themſelves free and independent, they publiſhed articles of confederation and perpetual union, under the title of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. By theſe it was agreed, that each ſtate ſhould retain its ſovereignty, freedom, and independence, with every other power not expreſsly delegated to congreſs. This body, in which the ſupreme legiſlative power was lodged, conſiſts of delegates annually choſen by the legiſlature of each ſtate, who were to meet on the firſt Monday of November, but with the reſervation of a power to each ſtate to recal its own delegates, or any one of them within the year, and to ſend others in their ſtead throughout the year. No ſtate was to be repreſented by leſs than two, nor any one by more than ſeven members; nor could any perſon be a member for more than three years in ſix; nor, while he continued a delegate, could he hold any office under the United States for which he was to receive an emolument. Every ſtate was bound to abide by the determinations of congreſs; but though theſe articles were at firſt deemed ſufficient to regulate the police of the United States, they were found, after eleven years trial, to be ſo deficient, that, in the ſummer of 1787, a meeting was held at Philadelphia to conſider of a new form of government; and at this meeting the following articles, which ſtill conſtitute the principal part of the government, were drawn up:

1. The legiſlative powers to be veſted in congreſs, which aſſembly is to conſiſt of a ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, the latter to be choſen every two years by the people of the ſeveral ſtates. None to be admitted as a repreſentative under the age of 25, having been for ſeven years a citizen of the United States, and being, at the time of election, an inhabitant of that ſtate for which he is choſen. The number of repreſentatives not to exceed one for every 30,000 inhabitants; but each ſtate ſhall have atleaſt one repreſentative; and when vacancies happen in the repreſentation, writs ſhall be iſſued from the legiſlature of the ſtate for filling

filling them up. The houſe of repreſentatives ſhall chooſe their ſpeaker, and other officers, and are to have the ſole power of impeachment.

2. The ſenate conſiſts of two members from each ſtate, choſen by the legiſlature for ſix years, each of whom is to have one vote. Immediately after their aſſembly in conſequence of the firſt election, they were to be divided as equally as poſſible into three claſſes; thoſe of the firſt claſs to vacate their ſeats at the expiration of three years; thoſe of the ſecond at the end of four; and thoſe of the third at the end of ſix years. None to be admitted a ſenator under the age of 30, having been nine years a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the ſtate for which he is choſen at the time of election. The power of trying impeachments is veſted entirely in the ſenate; and, when ſitting for that purpoſe, they muſt take an oath, or affirmation. The chief juſtice muſt preſide if the preſident of the United States be tried; and none to be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members preſent. No judgement in caſes of impeachment to extend farther than to a removal from office, and a diſqualification from holding any place of honour, truſt, or profit in the ſtates; though the party convicted ſhall alſo be ſubject to indictment, trial, and puniſhment, by law. The congreſs to aſſemble once a-year, ſitting down the firſt Monday of December, unleſs a different day be appointed by law.

3. The powers of the congreſs are to levy taxes, borrow money on the credit of the ſtates, coin money for circulation, regulate its value, and fix the ſtandards of weights and meaſures, eſtabliſh poſt offices, promote ſcience, eſtabliſh tribunals, raiſe armies, &c. &c. No title of nobility, however, can be conferred by this or any other court belonging to the United States. The executive power is veſted in the preſident of the United States, who is to hold his office for four years. None can be admitted to this office but a natural born citizen of the United States, or at leaſt who was a citizen at the time of making this inſtitution; nor can any one be elected who is below the age of 35, or who has not been 14 years reſident within the United States, as formerly mentioned. In caſe of the preſident's death, reſignation, removal from his office, or inability to diſcharge the duties of it, it is to devolve on the vice-preſident. At certain ſtated times the preſident is to receive a compenſation for his ſervices, which ſhall neither be increaſed nor diminiſhed during the time that he continues in office, and within that period he is to receive no other emolument from the United States; and before entering upon his office, muſt take the following oath: "I do ſolemnly ſwear, or affirm, that I will faithfully execute the office of preſident of the United States, and will, to the beſt of my ability, preſerve, protect, and defend the conſtitution of the United States."

4. The preſident is commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, as well as of the militia of each of them, when called into actual ſervice. He may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officers in each of the executive departments, upon any ſubject regarding the duties of their reſpective offices; and he has likewiſe power to grant pardon of all offences againſt the United States, except in caſes of impeachment. With the conſent and advice of the ſenate he has power to make treaties, provided two thirds of the ſenators preſent concur; and he ſhall nominate, and, by and with the conſent and advice of the ſenators, ſhall appoint ambaſſadors and other public miniſters and conſuls, judges of the ſupreme courts, and all other officers of the United States, whoſe

whoſe appointments are not otherwiſe provided for, and which ſhall be appointed by law. But the congreſs may by law veſt the appointment of ſuch inferior officers as they think proper, in the preſident alone, in the courts of law, or in the head of departments. The preſident has power to fell all vacancies that may happen during the receſs of the ſenate, by granting commiſſions which ſhall expire at the end of their next ſeſſion. From time to time the preſident muſt alſo give information to congreſs of the ſtate of the union, recommending to their conſideration ſuch meaſures as he ſhall think proper to be purſued. On extraordinary occaſions he may aſſemble both houſes, or any one of them; and, in caſe of diſagreement between them with reſpect to the time of the adjournment, he may adjourn them to ſuch time as he ſhall think proper. He ſhall alſo receive ambaſſadors and other public miniſters, take care that the laws be punctually executed, and ſhall commiſſion all the officers of the United States. He, as well as the vice-preſident, may be removed from his office, in caſe of impeachment and conviction of treaſon, bribery, or other high crimes and miſdemeanours.

5. The judicial power of the United States are veſted in one ſupreme court, and ſome other inferior ones appointed by congreſs. The judges in all caſes to hold their offices during good behaviour; they likewiſe receive a ſalary at ſtated times, not to be diminiſhed during the term they continue in office. All crimes, except in caſes of impeachment, to be tried by jury; the trial to be held in that ſtate where the crime is alledged to have been committed; but when not committed within any of the ſtates, the trial is to be held at ſuch places as the congreſs ſhall direct. Treaſon againſt the ſtates conſiſts only in levying war againſt them, or taking part with their enemies; and no perſon can be convicted of treaſon but by two witneſſes teſtifying ſome overt act, or by the party's confeſſion in open court. The puniſhment of treaſon ſhall be determined by congreſs, but no attainder of treaſon ſhall produce corruption of blood or forfeiture, except during the lifetime of the party.

Such are the moſt remarkable particulars of the new conſtitution of the United States laid before the congreſs, and eſtabliſhed in conſequence of the approbation of the ſeveral ſtates on the 17th of September 1787. With reſpect to Canada, which has continued ſubject to Britain ſince its conqueſt in the war of 1755, the inhabitants were by the terms of capitulation confirmed in all their former rights and privileges. In 1774, an act of parliament was paſſed, by which it was rendered lawful for his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, by warrant under his or their ſign manual, and with the advice of the privy council, to appoint a council for the affairs of the province; to veſt them with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, government, and welfare of the province, with the conſent of the governor, or, in his abſence, of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. They are not empowered, however, to lay on any taxes, except for the purpoſe of making roads, reparation of public buildings, &c. All matters of controverſy relating to property and civil rights are determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England was continued. This act produced great diſcontent both in Britain and America, but it has not been repealed, though it is impoſſible to ſhow that it has ever anſwered any good purpoſe, either at the time it was firſt paſſed, or at any time ſince.

Military Force by Sea and Land, Revenues, &c. The American ideas of preſerving the peace of a ſtate ſeem to be very different from thoſe imbibed by European potentates. Inſtead of thoſe expenſive ſtanding armies to be met with on this ſide of the Atlantic, the whole force of the United States amounts to no more than 1216 men, officers included; and even theſe anſwer no other purpoſe than that of garriſoning ſome ſmall forts ſcattered through the back ſettlements, none of which contain more than 30 or 40 men. As they have no enemy to dread but the Indians, the militia are always ready to be draughted in caſe of any emergency; and they are abundantly capable of contending with theſe adverſaries. They enter into pay only when called into actual ſervice; and as ſoon as the war is at an end they are diſmiſſed, and their pay ceaſes.

The American fleet makes a ſtill leſs reſpectable figure than their army, or rather they have no fleet at all; for they have not a ſingle ſailor in public pay, nor does the raiſing of a navy ſeem to be any object with congreſs. This ſeems the more ſurpriſing, as they have ſuch plenty of materials for ſhip building, and the great extent of their coaſt, and numerous iſlands which lie alongſt it, certainly render it very natural for many of them to apply themſelves to maritime affairs. As matters ſtand at preſent, they muſt make a very poor figure among the other nations of the world, and are more liable than even the Europeans to be inſulted by the pirates of Barbary; ſo that no American veſſel dares appear in the Mediterranean. It is probable, indeed, that as their country certainly produces every thing neceſſary for the comfort and happineſs of the inhabitants, Congreſs are not much diſpoſed to encourage commerce to theſe diſtant parts from whence only luxuries can be imported, and which, however it might enrich individuals, could not fail to be a detriment to the people at large.

Notwithſtanding the happy ſituation of the Americans with reſpect to the neceſſaries of life, however, it does not appear that money now is, or ever was, very plentiful among them. The war with Britain run them very conſiderably in debt, and it is probable that the ſtraits to which it has put them may be one cauſe of that rigid œconomy with regard to their fleet and army, which has been already taken notice of. This year (1790) the debts of each individual ſtate have been aſſumed by Congreſs, and found to amount in all to about 16 millions ſterling, the annual intereſt of which, together with the expences of government amount to ſomething leſs than one million 200,000 pounds. To diſcharge theſe debts, the Congreſs have had aſſigned them by the 13 United States all the vacant lands without the bounds of each, amounting to above 200 millions of acres. We have been favoured with the following ſtate of the revenues of the United States, with an eſtimate of the neceſſary ſupplies, dated July 10th 1789.

	Dollars.
The expences of government this year, including the arrearage of former years	630,101 $\frac{28}{90}$
Amount of intereſt due on foreign debt	1,840,071 $\frac{65}{90}$
Ditto of inſtalments now due on the ſaid debt	1,562,899 $\frac{81}{90}$
Carried forward —	3,402,971 $\frac{56}{90}$

	Dollars.
Brought forward —	3,402,971 $\frac{54}{90}$
Amount of intereſt due on the domeſtic debt to the 31ſt December 1789	3,286,070 $\frac{12}{90}$
	7,319,143 $\frac{6}{90}$
Arrears of former requiſitions, which will require a tax payable in *facilities* to the amount of	966,460 $\frac{81}{90}$
Total amount —	8,285,003 $\frac{87}{90}$

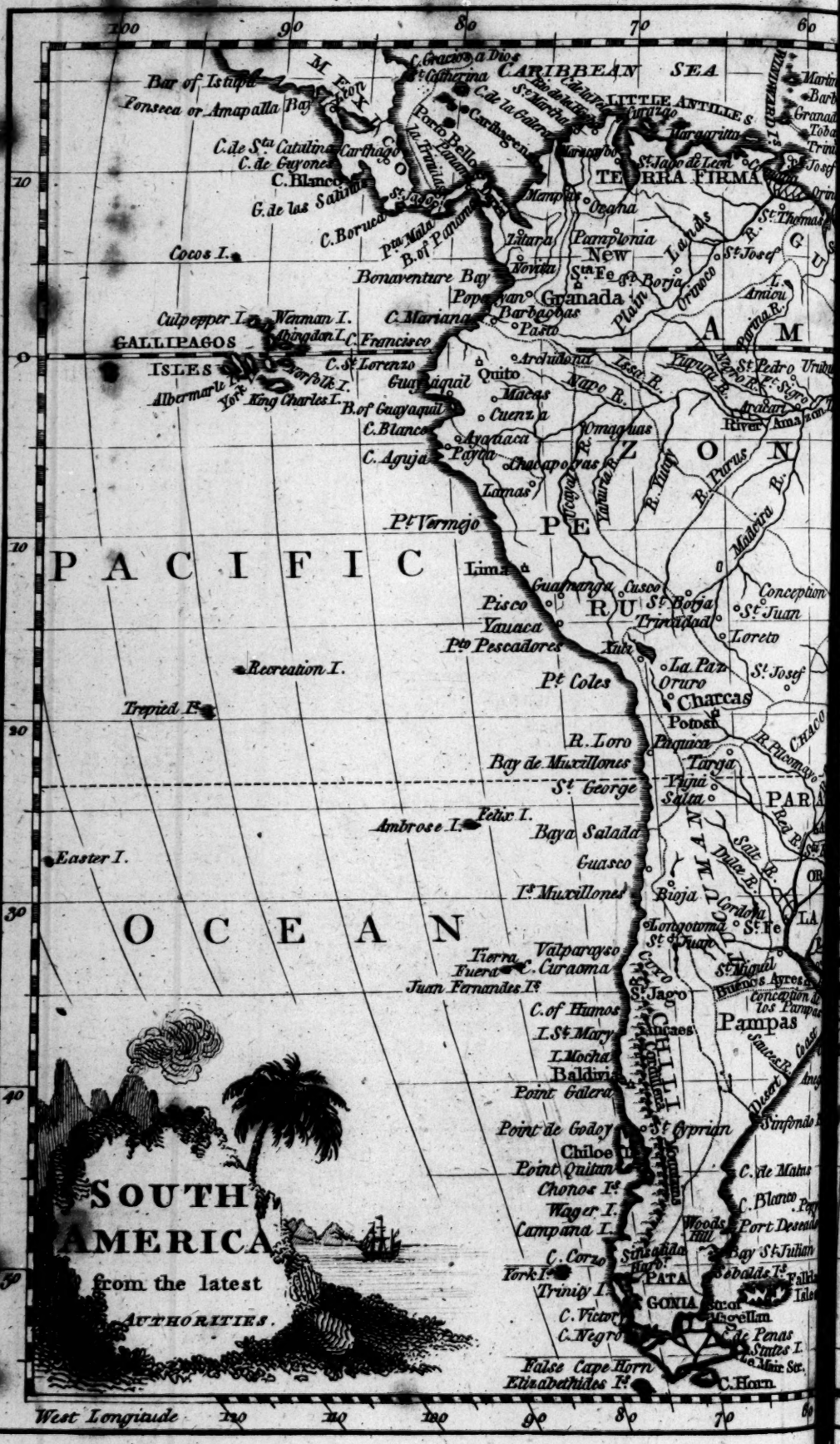
It alſo appears by the journals of Congreſs for 1784, that the farmers general of France have a claim on the United States for 846,770 livres tournois, 14 ſous and 5 derniers, upon a contract ſigned by Benjamin Franklin the 17th November 1781, being a balance due on a loan of 1,000,000 livres tournois, the 3d June 1777, to Meſſieurs Franklin and Deane, as agents for the United States.

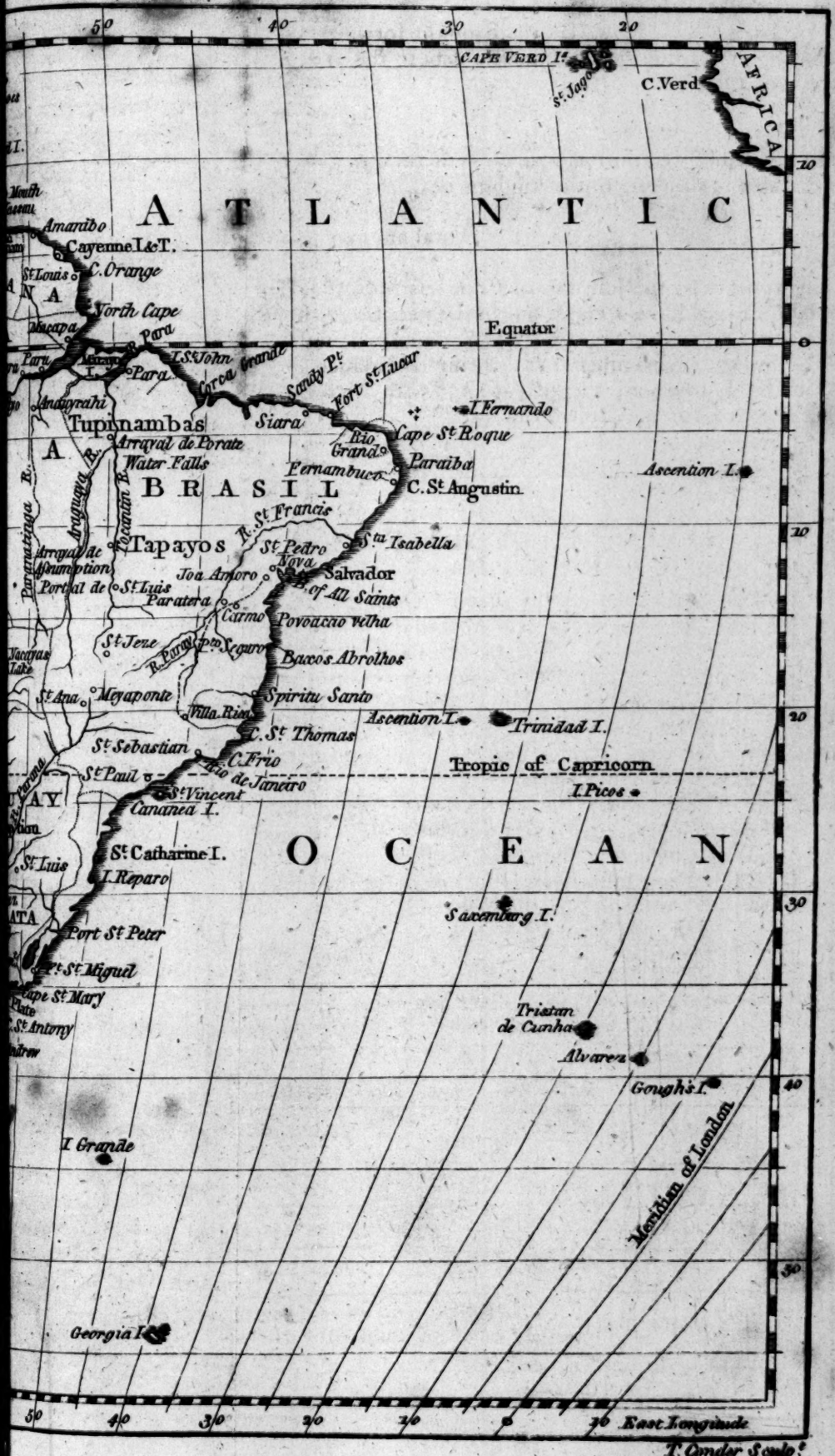
SOUTH AMERICA

BOUNDED on the weſt by the Pacific Ocean, or Great South Sea; on the ſouth by the Straits of Magellan, which ſeparate it from Terra del Fuego; and on the north by the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, except in that place where it joins the northern continent by the Iſthmus of Darien, is of immenſe extent, lying between the latitude of 12° 20′ north and 54° ſouth, and between 34 and 81 degrees weſt longitude, being not leſs than 4600 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 2300 in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Diviſions. Theſe are very uncertain in a continent whoſe internal parts are hitherto unexplored by Europeans. It is divided among the Spaniards, Portugueſe, and Dutch; but the laſt have by far the leaſt ſhare. The following table ſhews the extent of the different provinces belonging to each, according to the beſt computations:

Nations.	Len	Bre.	Sq. M.	Chief Cities.	Diſt. and bearing from London.	Belongs to.
Terra Firma	1450	710	700,100	Panama	4660 S. W	Spain
Peru	1860	620	970,100	Lima	5530 S. W.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200L. 900 B.						
Guiana	800	490	250,100	Surinam Cayenne	3860 S. W.	Dutch French
Brazil	2510	800	940,100	St Sebaſtian	6070 S. W.	Portugal
Parag. or La Plata	1520	1020	1,000,200	Buen. Ayres	6050 S. W.	Spain
Chili	1250	510	206,200	St Jago	6650 S. W.	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	1410	470	325,100	The Spaniards took poſſeſſion of it, but did not think it worth while to ſettle there.		


SOUTH
AMERICA
from the latest
AUTHORITIES.
PACIFIC
OCEAN
CARIBBEAN SEA
TERRA FIRMA
New Granada
PERU
CHILI
PARAGUAY
Pampas
CHACO
AMAZONIA
Lima
Quito
Cuzco
Charcas
Potosi
Valparayso
Baldivia
Chiloe I.
Trinidad
Buenos Ayres
Conception
St. Jago
St. Juan
Loreto
La Paz
Oruro
Arica
Pisco
Yauaca
Guayaquil
Panama
Carthagena
Porto Bello
Caracas
Margaritta
Trinidad I.
Jamaica
Cuba
Hispaniola
Porto Rico
Martinico
Barbadoes
Granada
Tobago
Curaçao
St. Thomas
St. Josef
Bar of Istapa
Fonseca or Amapalla Bay
C. de Gayones
C. Blanco
G. de las Sabinas
C. Borucca
Pta Mala
B. of Panama
Cocos I.
Bonaventure Bay
Culpepper I.
Wenman I.
Abingdon I.
GALLIPAGOS ISLES
Albemarle I.
Narborough I.
King Charles I.
C. Francisco
C. St. Lorenzo
B. of Guayaquil
C. Blanco
C. Aguja
Pt Vermejo
Pt Pescadores
Recreation I.
Tropick Pt.
Ambrose I.
Felix I.
Easter I.
I.s Muxillones
Bay de Muxillones
St George
R. Loro
Tierra Fuera
Juan Fernandes I.s
C. Huamos
I. St Mary
I. Mocha
Point Galera
Point de Godoy
Point Quitan
Chonos I.s
Wager I.
Campana I.
C. Corzo
York I.
Trinity I.
C. Victory
C. Negro
False Cape Horn
Elizabethides I.s
C. Horn
Straits of Magellan
Sebalds I.s
Falkland I.
Port Desead
Bay St. Julian
Woods Hill
Sinsgalda Harb.
Sinfonde I.
C. de Matas
C. Blanco
St. Cyprian
Desert
Salt R.
Dulce R.
Salado R.
Rio de la Plata
Paraguay R.
Vermejo R.
Pilcomayo R.
Rio Grande
Madeira R.
R. Purus
R. Yuruy
Yavari R.
Yapura R.
Iça R.
Napo R.
Issa R.
Putumayo R.
Angelo R.
Arabari River
Amazon
Orinoco
Apure R.
Barima R.
Amicu
Lake Parima
Lake Amucu
Lake Tacarigua
Lake Valencia
Lake Maracaibo
Lake Nicaragua
Lake Xarayes
Lake Titicaca
Lake Aquilpa
Lake Xaquixaguana
Lake Parime
Lake Dorado


CAPE VERD Is
St. Jago
C. Verd
AFRICA
ATLANTIC
Amariba
Cayenne I. & T.
St. Louis
C. Orange
North Cape
Oyapoc R.
Para
Equator
I. St. John
Area Grande
Sandy Pt.
Fort St. Lucar
Macapa I.
Para
Andayrahi
Tupinambas
Siara
I. Fernando
Arraval de Porate
Rio Grande
Cape St. Roque
Water Falls
Pernambuco
Paraiba
Ascention I.
BRASIL
C. St. Augustin
R. St. Francis
Tapayos
St. Pedro
Sta. Isabella
Arraval de Assumption
Joa Amoro
Nova Salvador
Portal de St. Luis
of All Saints
Paratera
Carmo
Povoacao vilha
St. Jeze
Bacos Abrolhos
Spiritu Santo
St. Ana
Miyaponte
Villa Rica
Ascention I.
Trinidad I.
C. St. Thomas
St. Sebastian
C. Frio
Tropic of Capricorn
St. Paul
Rio de Janeiro
I. Pices
St. Vincent
Cananea I.
OCEAN
St. Catharine I.
St. Luis
I. Reparo
Sarcemburg I.
Port St. Peter
Port St. Miguel
Cape St. Mary
Tristan de Cunha
St. Antony
Alvarez
Goughs I.
I. Grande
Meridian of London
Georgia I.
East Longitude
T. Conder Sculp.

Air and Climate. Under the head of North America we have taken notice of the exceſſive cold and moiſture of the climate there, with the ſudden and ſeemingly unaccountable changes of weather which took place in that continent. Theſe are owing to the wind blowing over the ſnowy mountains, and chilling the air from a great way to the ſouthward. About the country called Florida, however, theſe chilling blaſts entirely ceaſe, and the air becomes not only temperate, but exceſſively hot; nevertheleſs, it is ſaid to be very wholeſome, and that the Indians there live to a great age. Proceeding weſtward to Louiſiana and New Mexico, the air is leſs ſubject to theſe great heats, though in California they are frequently infeſted with them to an equal degree; but indeed it has been remarked by captain Cook, that the air is more temperate on the weſtern than the eaſtern coaſt of America. In Mexico the climate is often intolerably hot, and in the eaſtern parts where the land is low, and continually overflowed by the exceſſive rains, it is likewiſe very unwholeſome. In the inland parts indeed it is much milder, and ſtill more ſo on the weſtern coaſt, where it is full of plantations. In the gulf of Mexico and the adjacent ſeas, the winds blow ſtrongly from the north from October to March, about the new and full moon; and near the coaſt of the South Sea the monſoons blow regularly, and they have breezes from the land and ſea as in Aſia. In Terra Firma, which includes the Iſthmus of Darien, the climate is not only exceſſively hot, but the vapours raiſed from the two vaſt oceans on the eaſt and weſt ſides of it pour down ſuch immenſe deluges of rain as are in a manner inconceivable. Hence the air is exceſſively unwholeſome, and the climate very diſagreeable. In Peru the air is more temperate, and, as in Terra Firma it rains in a manner continually, ſo in Peru it never rains at all. Notwithſtanding this, however, the night-dews are in general ſo copious, that the ground is abundantly fertilized, though on the weſtern coaſt it is dry, ſandy, and barren, excepting near the ſides of rivers. The extenſive country called Amazonia, or the land of the Amazons, is too little known to give any account of its climate; though, from the vaſt rivers it contains, there is little reaſon to ſuppoſe but it is equally moiſt with other parts. Braſil, which lies to the eaſtward of this country, is extremely hot, unwholeſome, and ſubject to violent tempeſts in thoſe parts which lie within the torrid zone; but beyond the tropic of Capricorn, where it lies contiguous to Paraguay, the air is exceedingly temperate and ſerene; being refreſhed with the ſea breezes on the one hand, and thoſe from the mountains on the other. Chili, which lies on the weſtern coaſt, boaſts of the fineſt climate, without exception, not only in America, but perhaps in the whole world; and Paraguay, which lies to the eaſtward of it, is little inferior. But to the ſouthward of theſe fine countries lie the dreary regions of Patagonia and Terra Magellanica, occupying the moſt ſoutherly part of the American continent. Here there is ſcarce any diſtinction of ſeaſons; an univerſal cold prevails throughout the whole year, which puts a ſtop to the powers of vegetation, ſo that the country is almoſt entirely barren, and incapable of cultivation. Its coaſts are beat with perpetual ſtorms and tempeſts; ſo that it may juſtly be reckoned one of the moſt inhoſpitable places on the face of the earth.

Mountains. This country is remarkable for the higheſt as well as the moſt extenſive ridge of mountains in the world, named the *Andes*, or Cordilleras. They run through Peru and Chili, almoſt the whole

length of the continent, in a direction parallel to the coaſt of the South Sea. The tops of them are ſo high, that the air is intolerably ſharp and piercing. The higheſt point, Chimboraco, however, has never been reached by any body. By geometrical menſuration it is computed to be almoſt four miles elevated above the level of the ſea; ſo that it is very near a mile higher than any hitherto diſcovered on the eaſtern continent. From this extraordinary height, it has been ſuppoſed that the top was quite above the region of the clouds; but M. Bouguer aſſures us, that he had ſeen clouds flying above it at the height of at leaſt three quarters of a mile; ſo that their perpendicular height from the level of the ſea was upwards of four miles and an half. The next in height to Chimboraco is the vaſt mountain of Cotopaxi, a volcano which ſometimes burns in the moſt furious manner. It is about three miles and an half perpendicular, but has been known to ſend forth its ſmoke to the height of between five and ſix miles above the level of the ſea. There are many others of between three and four miles high; but that called *Pichincha*, whoſe top is exactly three miles above the ſurface of the ſea, is the moſt remarkable, on account of the reſidence of the French mathematicians for ſome time there, in order to meaſure a degree of longitude. Though this mountain is ſituated almoſt directly under the equator, they found the cold exceſſively ſevere; the wind at the ſame time being ſo violent, that they were often in danger of being blown down the precipices; they were alſo frequently involved in ſuch a thick fog, that they could not diſtinguiſh objects at the diſtance of ſix or eight paces. When the clouds deſcended, the air on the top of the mountain became ſerene, but in the lower regions they heard the dreadful noiſe of thunder and tempeſts which diſcharged themſelves there. As ſoon as theſe abated, the clouds roſe to their former ſtation, and, by reaſon of their extreme denſity, rendered reſpiration difficult, and the ſnow and hail fell continually. On the top of this mountain they erected a hut, but were often in danger of being hurried along with it down from the top of the mountain; the cold being alſo ſo intenſe, that their feet were ſwelled and became ſo tender, that they could touch nothing without extreme pain; their hands were chopped and covered with chilblains, as were alſo their lips to ſuch a degree, that they could not ſpeak without making them bleed. Notwithſtanding this extreme cold, there are ſaid to be no fewer than 10 volcanoes among theſe mountains; whoſe eruptions are more terrible than thoſe of the eaſtern continent in proportion to their ſize.

Rivers. As the largeſt rivers in the world take their riſe from high mountains, ſo the Andes, which are the higheſt in the world, alſo ſend down the largeſt rivers. The principal are thoſe called Granada, or Cagdalena, the Oronoque, Amazons, and Plata; the two laſt being reckoned ſuperior to any in the world. The Oronoque has its ſource among thoſe mountains which lie directly under the equator, and conſiſts of two capital branches, running for a great way in an eaſterly direction, then turning to the north-eaſt, it receives the river San Pedro; after which, continuing the ſame courſe, it falls into that part of the Atlantic called the North Sea, almoſt oppoſite to the iſland of Trinidad, having traverſed a ſpace of ground not leſs than 1400 miles from its ſource, including the windings. The river of the Amazons, called by the Spaniards *Maragnon*, takes its riſe from a lake among the Andes of Peru, about 11 degrees of ſouth latitude. Iſſuing from thence it takes a northerly

therly courſe for about ſix degrees, and then proceeds in a direction almoſt ſtraight eaſt, and parallel to the equator, for the ſpace of little leſs than 3000 miles; deviating at length, however, a little to the northward, ſo that it diſcharges itſelf into the ſea directly under the equator; its mouth being no leſs than 150 miles broad where it falls into the ſea. It receives a great number of rivers, ſome of which are not leſs than the Nile, or Danube, and run over a ſpace of at leaſt 1500 miles. Hence it conveys to the ſea a quantity of water altogether ſuperior to what we could imagine; being in ſome places 100 fathoms deep, and little leſs than a mile and an half in breadth; and, like other rivers within the Tropics, it overflows its banks annually, producing an incredible fertility of the ſoil for a great way on both ſides. It was firſt diſcovered in 1540 by Franciſco de Orellana, who had been ſent by Gonzales Pizarro, brother to the conqueror of Peru, whom he cruelly abandoned, as ſhall be related in its proper place. The river takes its name from the women appearing in arms along with the men when the Spaniards firſt appeared among them. The courſe of the river Plata is much ſhorter than that of the Amazons; nevertheleſs, it diſcharges an aſtoniſhing quantity of water, which is the more conſiderable on account of the rapidity of its ſtream. It takes its riſe in the province of the ſame name, and runs in a ſouth-eaſt direction till it joins the river Paraguay, after which the united ſtream bears the name of La Plata for the ſpace of about 600 miles, when it empties itſelf with aſtoniſhing rapidity into the Atlantic Ocean, 150 miles below Buenos Ayres. It has many pleaſant iſlands ſcattered up and down throughout its courſe, and is navigable for the largeſt veſſels.

Soil and Produce. Excepting only the barren and deſart coaſts of Patagonia and Terra Magellanica, the continent of South America affords the moſt exceſſive luxuriancy of vegetation; nor are even the ſouthern parts of North America in the leaſt inferior to any of the countries we have already deſcribed. Eaſt Florida indeed is flat and ſandy on the maritime parts; but even in the worſt parts it produces two crops of Indian corn a-year; and the garden vegetables arrive at the utmoſt perfection: orange and lemon trees grow ſpontaneouſly, and produce better fruit than thoſe of Europe; and the inland country is fertile not only in the productions of North and South Carolina, but in thoſe of Europe alſo. It produces likewiſe iron, copper, quickſilver, and pit-coal, as well as amethyſts, turquoiſes, and lapis lazuli; amber-greaſe and pearls are alſo found upon the coaſt, and the ſouthern parts produce mahogany, but inferior to that of Jamaica. In this country the valuable cochineal inſect, ſo much uſed in the art of dyeing, is met with; cattle of all kinds are exceſſively numerous, and horſes, particularly, ſo plentiful, that inſtances have been known of their being exchanged for an hatchet each. The countries of New Mexico, Louiſiana, and California, are but little known, though it is not doubted that they produce every thing neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence and comfort of the human race. They are ſaid to contain gold mines; but of theſe we have no accounts that can be depended upon. In California there ſometimes falls a kind of dew upon the leaves of roſes, which concretes into ſugar. In the inland parts there are vaſt plains covered with fine ſalt, as clear as cryſtal; and which, by reaſon of the vaſt quantity of fiſh with which the coaſt abounds, might be of the utmoſt importance to an induſtrious people. In Mexico the ſoil and climate are more adapted to the production of fruits than grain, though its deficiency in the latter is probably owing

rather

rather to the indolence of the inhabitants than any thing elſe. Vaſt quantities of ſugar are manufactured in this country; but its chief wealth conſiſts in the gold and ſilver mines, which firſt attached the Spaniards to this part of the world. The annual produce of theſe has been computed at 24 millions ſterling; but by reaſon of the expence of working them, it is ſaid that no great profit accrues to the proprietors at laſt. Silk, though in ſmall quantities, is produced in Mexico; but cotton in great abundance, as well as cochineal, cocoa, and chocolate. Many rich gold mines were alſo met with in Terra Firma, but they are now moſtly exhauſted; however, it is ſaid that emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones are ſtill found here; and mines of ſilver, iron, and copper have been opened not very long ago. The coaſts of this country are ſandy and barren, but the inland parts, by reaſon of the great heat, and vaſt quantity of rain which falls, are fruitful beyond imagination. Great part of the country is overgrown with woods, which abound with monkeys. Theſe miſchievous animals will threaten a ſingle perſon who happens to paſs by, hanging by their tails from the branches of trees, chattering, and throwing things at him; but if two or three people are in company, they generally run off.

Peru has been celebrated, from the time of its firſt diſcovery, for the vaſt quantity of the precious metals it produces. It produces alſo wine in great abundance, and that valuable tree whoſe bark is now become ſo great an article in medicine, under the name of the Peruvian, or Jeſuits bark. The tree which produces it is about the ſize of a cherry tree, and has a fruit reſembling the almond; it grows chiefly in the mountainous parts. In the province of Quito, Guinea, or Cayenne pepper, is produced in great abundance, and is exported to the value of 60o,coo crowns annually. Quickſilver is alſo found here in plenty, and is an article of great conſequence in extracting the gold from its ore. The produce of Chili is much the ſame with that of Peru, but rather ſtill more rich. Gold is ſo abundant, that it is met with in almoſt every river; and almoſt every ſpecies of grain arrives at the utmoſt perfection with very little labour in cultivating the ground. Paraguay is remarkable for being deſtitute of wood, contrary to the nature of America in general, and for many hundred miles is one continued plain, without being interrupted by a ſingle eminence. This level part is called by the Spaniards the province of La Plata, and is almoſt the only part of the country known to the Spaniards, or to any other European nations. It is extremely fertile, producing cotton, tobacco, a valuable herb which goes by the name of the country, *Paraguay*, with a variety of fine fruits. Cattle are bred in ſuch numbers, that they are ſaid to be ſlaughtered merely for the ſake of their hides and tallow; the fleſh being accounted of no value.

Braſil is little inferior in fertility to any of the countries already mentioned. It produces ſugar in great quantities, the Braſil wood uſed in dyeing; balſam of Copaiba, ipecacuanha, ſarſaparilla, and other medicinal articles. It contains alſo very rich gold mines, and diamonds in greater plenty than any country in the world. Horned cattle are here produced in ſuch abundance, that, as in Paraguay, they are killed only for the ſake of their hides, of which many thouſands are annually imported into Europe.

The country called Guiana belongs to the Dutch and French; but the climate is inferior to the others juſt mentioned, though the ſoil is abundantly

dantly fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, excellent coffee, tobacco, flax, &c. The French territory of Cayenne, which lies to the ſouthward of the Dutch ſettlements, is much the ſame with that already deſcribed.

Inhabitants, &c. The Indians in South America, where they are ſtill in their ſavage ſtate, have all the bad qualities for which thoſe of North America are remarkable. In Mexico and Peru, where they are ſubject to ſlavery, they are cowardly, miſerable, and depreſſed. The Spaniards are immerſed in luxury and debauchery, and are ſaid to have all the bad qualities of the inhabitants of Old Spain, without any of their good ones. In Terra Firma there are a kind of Indians of a fair complexion, very delicate in their habit of body, with large blue eyes, and ſo weak that they cannot bear the light of the ſun; whence they ſee beſt with moon light, and thence have obtained the name of *Moon-eyed Indians*. The Spaniſh inhabitants differ little from thoſe of Mexico; but in both countries we may obſerve a ſurpriſing gradation of colour, owing to the intermarriages of the white people with the Indians and Negroes. The firſt produce of the marriage of a white with a Negro is a mulatto; next to this is a *Tercerone*, from the marriage of a white perſon with a mulatto; a quarterone proceeds from the marriage of a white and tercerone. The quarterones have ſtill ſome tincture of the Negro complexion; but the quinterones, who proceed from the marriage of a white and quarterone, are fairer than the original Spaniards. In like manner, the change of colour proceeds in a retrograde order, by the continual intermarriage of Negroes with whites and their deſcendants. What has been ſaid of the inhabitants of Mexico and Terra Firma may in general be applied to thoſe in the Spaniſh dominions throughout America. The character of the Portugueſe in Braſil is by no means more favourable. They are deſcribed as not only capable, but alſo guilty of the baſeſt crimes; ſunk in the moſt deſperate effeminacy, luxury, and debauchery; hypocritical, diſſembling, diſhoneſt, proud, lazy, and cruel. They are all, as well as the Spaniards in this part of the world, exceedingly fond of ſhew, very often without convenience. They ſeldom appear abroad without being carried in a machine called a *Serpentine*. This is a kind of light cotton hammock, carried on the ſhoulders of Negroes, by means of a bamboo about 14 or 15 feet long. The colour of theſe hammocks is generally blue, and adorned with fringes of the ſame colour, having a velvet pillow, with a teſter and curtains; ſo that the perſon cannot be ſeen unleſs he chooſes. He can eaſily ſhew himſelf, however, by drawing aſide the curtains; and thus they will even converſe with their acquaintance for a conſiderable time on the ſtreet; the Negroes in the mean time ſticking in two iron forks in the ground, on which they ſupport the ends of the bamboo. So great is their ambition for being carried in this manner, that ſcarcely any gentleman or lady will croſs the ſtreet but in a ſerpentine. The Dutch and French inhabitants of South America differ little from thoſe of their reſpective countries in Europe.

Chief Towns. Theſe are by no means remarkable in South America, or the ſouthern part of North America belonging to the Spaniards. St Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, is fortified with a ditch and baſtions, and defended by a caſtle well furniſhed with cannon. It lies along the ſhore, and has four regular ſtreets croſſing each other at right angles. Penſacola, the capital of Weſt Florida, is an inconſiderable place, ſituated in a bay of the ſame name, but which can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The harbour of St Auguſtine alſo is but indifferent, having

having breakers at the entrance, which form two channels of only eight feet water at low tides. The principal cities of Mexico, or New Spain, are Mexico the capital, Acapulco, and La Vera Cruz. The firſt is, without exception, the fineſt in South America. It is ſituated in the midſt of a large lake of ſalt water, ſo that it is acceſſible only by cauſeway made through the water for a conſiderable way. It is of a ſquare form, and about ſeven miles in circumference, very populous, and much admired for its fine ſtreets and ſquares, the beauty of its buildings, and the coolneſs of its ſituation in ſuch an hot climate. The principal edifice is the cathedral, which took up 60 years in building, and coſt upwards of two millions of pieces of eight; notwithſtanding a vaſt number of Indians were employed, whoſe labour coſt very little. The inſide ornaments of this cathedral are ſaid to have coſt very little leſs than the ſum juſt mentioned. The image of the Virgin Mary is of maſſy ſilver, adorned with rubies and pearls to the amount of 30,000 pieces of eight and upwards: the high altar coſt 50,000; the ordinary chalice is of gold enchaſed, and covered with rubies, at the expence of 11,000 pieces of eight. The clergy are the only proprietors of the ground here, and their revenues are computed at no leſs than L. 1,200,000 Sterling. The city is ſupplied with freſh water, brought, by means of an aqueduct, from an hill about three miles off. This city was burnt by the Spaniards at their firſt invaſion; and, though built after the American manner, was very large and magnificent. It was almoſt deſtroyed by an inundation in 1629.

Acapulco, the principal port on the coaſt of Mexico, ſtands on a fine bay of the South Sea, on the ſouth eaſt corner of the province. On the eaſt ſide it has very high mountains, and is exceedingly unwholeſome from the beginning of December to the end of May, during which time it never rains in this country. Its port is very commodious, and ſo large, that ſeveral hundred ſail of ſhips may anchor in it at once. The town ſtands on the north weſt ſide of the harbour; and oppoſite to it is a ſtrong caſtle, having 40 cannon of vaſt dimenſions. From this place ſail the two galleons; one to Manilla, the other to Lima; both laden with the riches of the eaſt and weſt. Vera Cruz ſtands in that part of Mexico named Tlaſcala, or Los Angelos, and is of very conſiderable extent, and of the utmoſt conſequence with regard to its trade, as ſhall afterwards be more particularly noticed. It is extremely unhealthy, by reaſon of the marſhes in its neighbourhood.

Lima, the chief city of Peru, is eſteemed the capital of the whole Spaniſh empire in America. It is ſituated in the midſt of a ſpacious valley, and excellently watered by the river Rimac; inſomuch, that each houſe has a ſtream for its own uſe. It is about ſix miles from the ſea; two miles in length, and one and a quarter in breadth; containing about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom only about 10,000 are whites. There are many magnificent ſtructures, particularly churches in this city; and all travellers mention with admiration their exceſſively rich decorations within; even the walls being ornamented with a profuſion of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The accounts given of theſe things may be credited from the inſtance of the vaſt wealth of the inhabitants given in 1682, when the ſtreets were paved with ingots of ſilver, in order to honour the viceroy at the time he made his public entry into the city; the expence of which amounted to 17 millions ſterling. The houſes, in general, however, are built of ſlight

materials; being leſs apt to ſuffer from the dreadful earthquakes which are frequent in this part of the world, and often do prodigious damage. In the year 1747, three fourths of the city were deſtroyed by an earthquake, and Callao, the ſea port belonging to it, was ſo completely overwhelmed, that, out of 3000 inhabitants, only a ſingle perſon eſcaped, and that by a moſt remarkable accident. Happening to be in a fort which overlooked the harbour, he ſuddenly perceived the inhabitants running from their houſes in the utmoſt conſternation, and the ſea, as uſual in the caſe of earthquakes, retiring a great way from the ſhore. In a moment it returned, and buried the whole town and people under a water; but the ſame wave which involved the reſt in this dreadful deſtruction, drove a little boat cloſe by the place where he ſtood, and thus gave him an opportunity of preſerving himſelf. Next to Lima, Quito is the principal place in Peru, and is thought to be ſuperior to it in population. It is ſupported chiefly by the manufactures of wool, cotton, and flax, in which the inhabitants employ themſelves, not having any mines in its neighbourhood. Next to this city is Cuſco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire; which, though much declined, is ſtill of conſiderable extent, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants, three fourths of whom are Indians; and, contrary to the general character of that people, are very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. The people of all theſe cities have alſo a peculiar taſte for painting.

Buenos Ayres, the chief city of Paraguay, is ſituated 50 leagues within the mouth of the river La Plata, where the latter is 21 miles broad. It is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only trading place to the ſouthward of Braſil.

The principal town of Braſil is named St Salvador. It ſtands on a high and ſteep rock, having on one ſide the ſea, and on the other a lake in the ſhape of a creſcent, which almoſt entirely ſurrounds it. It has a noble and convenient harbour, which is the rendezvous of all the fleets on their return to Portugal.

Surinam, the capital of Dutch Guiana, ſtands on a river of the ſame name; but in an unwholeſome ſituation, by reaſon of the neighbouring marſhes, though placed on an eminence. It carries on a conſiderable trade.

Curioſities. Theſe are not entirely of the natural kind in South America; the empires of Mexico and Peru having been conſiderably advanced in ſome of the arts, ſo that theſe countries afford ſome remains of antiquity; though indeed we have no accounts of them that can be depended upon. The other curioſities conſiſt moſtly of ſome extraordinary plants and animals. The manchineel tree has a fruit reſembling an apple; but is one of the moſt poiſonous vegetables known in the world. It is a native of Terra Firma. So virulent is the poiſon, that, if a perſon only ſleeps under it, or if the rain from it drops upon him, he ſoon becomes ſwelled and tormented with pains. The remedy for it is ſaid to be oil. Here alſo grows a tree whoſe fruit is ſaid to be an excellent antidote againſt the bites of the moſt venomous ſerpents and vipers with which theſe countries abound; but in ſuch antidotes very little confidence is to be put, as has already been obſerved. It is called the Habella de Carthagena, and is a ſpecies of willow; the fruit reſembles an almond, but the kernel is leſs white, and extremely bitter. Among the many curious animals met with in the ſouthern continent of America, the *Sloth*, called by way of deriſion the *Swift Peter*, is one of the moſt remarkable. This ſeems to be the moſt miſerable creature in

the world; its ſkin being ſo corrugated, that it cannot move its limbs ſeemingly without the greateſt pain. Hence its motions are extremely ſlow; ſeveral minutes being taken up in moving one of its legs, and no motion being ever made unleſs the animal be pinched with hunger. Every motion is likewiſe attended with a moſt diſagreeable and plaintive cry, in which its whole defence conſiſts; for as ſoon as he finds himſelf purſued, he begins to move, uttering all the while ſuch pitiful complaints, that the dogs, or other animals which purſue, are terrified at the noiſe, and quickly deſiſt. The ſloth feeds upon wild fruits; and, when he finds none upon the ground, looks out with the utmoſt pains for a tree well loaded: then climbing up with the utmoſt difficulty, he moves from branch to branch, plucking off the fruit, and throwing it down; and having, at laſt, with infinite labour, accompliſhed his purpoſe, he drops from the tree himſelf with a loud cry, to ſave the trouble of another journey. In Peru there is a river, the waters of which are as red as blood; and there are ſome others endowed with ſuch a petrifying quality, that, having run for ſome time, they turn into a kind of ſoft ſtone, which is uſed in building. The creatures which produce the wool of this country are to be met with no where elſe in the world. They are of two kinds, named *Llamas* and *Vicunnas*. The former has a ſmall head, with ſome reſemblance to the ſhape of both an horſe and ſheep. It has a cleft in the upper lip, through which, when angry, it ſpits a venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls upon. It is about the ſize of a ſtag, is uſed as a beaſt of burden, being very ſwift, and able to carry 60 or 70 pounds. It is capable of bearing vaſt fatigue, as it eats very ſparingly and never drinks. The Vicunna is much ſmaller than the Llama, and produces finer wool. It affords alſo Bezoar ſtones, formerly of great eſtimation in medicine, but which have now loſt their character entirely. In Guiana there are ſuch vaſt numbers of curious birds, that ſeveral people of the country ſubſiſt by killing and preſerving them for the naturaliſts of Europe. In Surinam river is found that remarkable fiſh called the Gymnotus Electricus, or Electric Eel, which gives a ſtrong electric ſhock to any perſon who touches it in a certain manner with both hands. This ſhock it is capable of communicating to other fiſhes in the water, and thus either killing them for food, or deſtroying ſuch as would annoy it. It is ſaid, however, to be killed by the lobſter, notwithſtanding its electrical properties; and this may very probably be true, on account of the bad conducting qualities of the ſhell with which this animal is covered. The gymnotus grows to a very large ſize; and ſome are ſaid to have been ſeen 22 feet in length, the ſhock of which would inſtantly kill a man. The ſnakes of Guiana are very numerous and dangerous; ſome of them growing to the vaſt ſize of thoſe mentioned in the iſland of Ceylon. One of theſe is ſaid to have been killed not many years ago upwards of 33 feet in length, and three feet in circumference. Its head was broad, the eyes large and prominent, the mouth very wide, and furniſhed with a double row of teeth. The Laubba is an animal peculiar to this country. It is amphibious, about the ſize of a pig of four months old, covered with fine ſhort hair, and its fleſh is preferred by the Europeans in Guiana to every other kind of meat.

Commerce. The valuable productions of South America may juſtly equal its commerce to that of the Eaſt Indies. On the coaſt of California there is a very fine pearl fiſhery. New Mexico is ſaid to abound

abound with gold mines; and ſome corn and wine are exported from that country to Old Mexico, which is not fertile in theſe articles. The trade of this laſt country is exceedingly extenſive; its commodities being diſperſed almoſt all over the world. From La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the gulf of Mexico, it carries on a trade with Europe; and, by means of Acapulco, with the Eaſt Indies and South America. The exports from La Vera Cruz are principally gold and ſilver, and the returns are thoſe neceſſaries and luxuries of life, which, with the ſmalleſt imaginable pains, the inhabitants might procure for themſelves. Here the Cadiz fleet, known by the name of the *Flota*, uſually arrive about the beginning of November. It conſiſts of about 14 or 15 large merchant ſhips, with three men of war as a convoy, carrying all kinds of European manufactures; few, or none of which, however, are the production of Spain, except wine and oil; ſo that the mother country derives no other advantage from all this merchandiſe, than the duty paid to the king, the freight and commiſſion to the Spaniards, and the profit of the wine and oil juſt mentioned. Thus the gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones with which this fleet is loaded in return, are diſperſed all over Europe; and the Spaniards, notwithſtanding their vaſt ſhew of wealth, are really immerſed in miſery and poverty. The flota, being loaded with the precious commodities abovementioned, ſet ſail for the Havannah in the iſland of Cuba, where they meet with the galleons from Carthagena carrying the produce of Terra Firma, and thoſe from Porto Bello carrying that of Peru. Here they are provided with a proper convoy, and ſet ſail at laſt for Old Spain. The trade between Acapulco and the Eaſt Indies is carried on by a ſingle ſhip, but of immenſe magnitude; being no leſs than 1000, or 1200 tons burthen, with a man of war for a convoy. Both ſhips carry goods, though only the galleon is allowed by government to do ſo. Their cargo from Manilla conſiſts of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the Eaſt; while the ſhip from Lima brings ſilver to the amount of not leſs than two millions of pieces of eight; beſides quickſilver and other valuable commodities for purchaſing the cargoes of the galleon. On this occaſion alſo ſeveral other ſhips meet from Chili and Peru, and a great fair, in which almoſt all the different kinds of commodities in the world are expoſed to ſale, is held for 30 days; after which the galleon, loaded with ſilver, and ſuch European commodities as are thought proper to be ſent to that country, prepares for her voyage. Mexico, the capital, however, is to be reckoned the centre of commerce in this country; as all the Eaſt India goods from Acapulco, and thoſe of Europe, from La Vera Cruz, paſs through this city. To this place come all the gold and ſilver which are to be coined; and all the utenſils and ornaments of plate are manufactured, which they annually ſend into Europe.

The coaſt of Terra Firma is remarkable for the excellent pearls it produces. Theſe are brought up by divers, who ſhew great dexterity in their buſineſs, though it ſometimes proves fatal to them, by reaſon of their being devoured by ſharks, or bruiſed againſt the rocks at the bottom. The pearls are found on different parts of the coaſt, but principally in the Bay of Panama, and a vaſt number of negro ſlaves are employed in diving for them.

Lima, the capital of Peru, is the centre of commerce for all the ſouthern provinces of the Spaniſh dominions; and the merchants here have a communication with almoſt every nation in the world. All the com-

modities from Europe, Aſia, and America, are landed at the ſame port; and a great trade is carried on in the way of barter. The merchants purchaſe what is not immediately diſpoſed of, and lay it up till a convenient opportunity offers. The commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru and Mexico. Their exports are corn, hemp, hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions; in return for which, they receive the commodities of Europe and Aſia. Chili is the only country on the South Sea where hemp is produced. The commerce of Paraguay is much the ſame with that of Chili.

The trade of Braſil is very extenſive, and continually increaſing; and is more eaſily carried on than that of European nations in America, on account of the Portugueſe ſettlements in Africa, from whence they can eaſily be ſupplied with ſlaves. Forty or fifty thouſand of theſe miſerable creatures are imported annually into this country; vaſt numbers of whom periſh in the mines. The diamonds brought from Braſil into Europe are ſuppoſed alone to be worth L. 130,000 annually; and the gold coined here is ſuppoſed not to be worth leſs than four millions Sterling. The ſugar trade is carried on to a much greater extent than formerly; and their tobacco is very good, though not raiſed in ſuch quantities as in ſome of the ſtates of North America. The chief trade of Surinam conſiſts in ſugar, cotton, coffee, tobacco, &c. as is alſo that of the French in Cayenne, which lies on the ſame coaſt of Guiana.

Hiſtory. We have already mentioned Columbus as the firſt diſcoverer of the Weſt India iſlands. In his firſt voyage he viſited ſeveral of theſe; and, having ſettled a colony in Hiſpaniola, returned to Spain in 1493. He was received by the king and queen with the utmoſt pomp, and he quickly after ſet out on a ſecond voyage, in which many new iſlands were diſcovered; and, in his third voyage, he diſcovered the continent near the mouth of the river Oronoque; but, though this had been the great object of his ambition, the northern part had been already diſcovered by Sabaſtian Cabot; and the ſame year, Braſil was diſcovered by Americus Veſputio, a Florentine; from whom the whole continent took the name of America. Columbus himſelf indeed was no longer reſpected than he was ſucceſsful. The coloniſts he had left behaved in ſuch an extravagant manner, that on his return among them he was obliged to uſe ſome ſeverities; in conſequence of which, complaints were made againſt him to the court of Spain for cruelty. The end of all was, that Columbus was ſent to Spain a priſoner, and in chains; but from theſe he was freed immediately on his arrival, though he continued to be deprived of all power, and never could regain any part of his credit; neither was any part of the treaty into which he had entered with the king of Spain ever fulfilled by that monarch; ſo that, after all his toils and ſervices, Columbus had the misfortune to ſee himſelf entirely neglected, and at laſt died of a broken heart, in the year 1506.

The Spaniards having once diſcovered the weſtern iſlands, now known by the name of the Weſt Indies, ſettled many colonies in them; and theſe had attained to a conſiderable degree of opulence and ſplendour before they obtained any poſſeſſions on the continent. The firſt conqueſt here of any importance was that of Mexico; which was undertaken in 1518, by a celebrated adventurer, named Ferdinando Cortes, after having been imperfectly diſcovered by one Nunez de Balboa. Cortes did not get the preparations neceſſary for his expedition made without the utmoſt difficulty, having been perſecuted to ſuch a degree by the Spaniſh governors in the

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West Indies, that he was obliged at last to throw off his allegiance to them, and proceed, with such troops as he could procure, without any commission. These indeed were not difficult to be procured, at a time when every one was ready to embark in adventures, expecting to make his fortune by acquisitions in the new world; and the excessive superiority which the fire-arms, cross-bows, and swords of the Spaniards gave them over their naked enemies, who were entirely ignorant of the use of iron, rendered only a very small force necessary. Cortes, on mustering his army, when landed at La Vera Cruz on the coast of Mexico, found that it amounted only to 508 infantry, 16 horsemen, with 109 mariners, pilots, and mechanics; and, with this inconsiderable force, he determined to attempt the conquest of a great and powerful empire.

At this time there existed in South America the two empires of Mexico and Peru, which were the only ones throughout the new world. Of the origin of these we have no authentic accounts, though it is supposed that the empire of Mexico had subsisted only about 130 years, and that of Peru was of still a later date. The Mexican empire was of great extent; being not less than 1500 miles in length from east to west, and upwards of 600 in breadth from north to south. The people had made some progress in arts and civilization; though their manners were still extremely barbarous; being addicted to that horrid custom of offering up human sacrifices, and putting to death, in honour of their infernal deities, not only the prisoners they took in war, but their own children also. Their principal god was named *Vitzli-putzli*, whom they stiled the God of War, and whom they supposed to be of such an hellish implacable nature, that he delighted in the hearts of human creatures torn out of their living bodies, broiled on coals and devoured; and that his principal pleasure was to drink the blood of the victims thus destroyed. At the time of the Spanish invasion, Mexico was governed by a tyrant named *Montezuma*, or *Motezuma*, who proceeded such a length in this detestable worship, that even his own subjects abhorred him. Their belief in the god abovementioned, however, seems to have been very sincere; for, at the sound of a drum of enormous size, (about 30 feet in diameter) which was kept in a great temple in the city of Mexico, consecrated to the god just mentioned, they were all ready to throw themselves into the greatest dangers, and became in amanner quite regardless of life. In other respects, their progress in the arts was but very trifling; their architecture was far inferior to that of Europe, or even Asia; and, though they had painters, their performances were such as would have disgraced the meanest artist among us. One thing, however, was very remarkable, that on the very first arrival of the Spaniards, they found a tradition universally prevalent among the people, that some dreadful calamity was now about to befal them; and that they were to be invaded by a formidable race of men from the east, who should over-run and lay waste their country. On the arrival of Cortez, therefore, in the dominions of Montezuma, the later was greatly terrified, supposing the Spaniards to be that dreadful race of invaders. Judging it most proper for him to receive these formidable strangers as friends, he sent ambassadors to Cortes with the greatest expressions of friendship and desire of peace. As their language was entirely unknown, however, no communication could have been held between them, had it not been for an Indian slave, who acted as an interpreter, whom they named Donna Marina, and who proved afterwards of the greatest service to them. Cortes, having heard what the ambassadors had to say,

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gave no other anſwer, than that he had matters to propoſe, of the utmoſt conſequence to the country, and without more ado ſet about fortifying his camp; in which work the thoughtleſs Americans aſſiſted him to the utmoſt of their power. On a ſecond viſit of the ambaſſadors he told them that he came from the king of Caſtile, the greateſt monarch of the eaſt, and that he was entruſted with propoſitions of ſuch moment, that he could impart them to none but the emperor himſelf. By this intimation the ambaſſadors were thunderſtruck; but, after recovering from their ſurpriſe, they did all in their power to diſſuade the Spaniſh general from his deſign, making at the ſame time many valuable preſents, in order to induce him to comply with their requeſt; but theſe were ſo far from having the deſired effect on the Spaniſh general, that they excited in him an inſatiable deſire of becoming maſter of the country, which he now believed to be very rich. In the mean time, having obſerved, that ſome painters, who came along with the ambaſſadors, were buſy in delineating the horſes, arms, &c. of the Spaniards, with a deſign to ſend their repreſentations to Montezuma, he determined to give them a more ſtriking example of the proweſs of his troops than what their delineations could exhibit. With this view, he cauſed his ſoldiers to exerciſe themſelves before them, the trumpets to ſound an alarm, and the artillery to be diſcharged againſt ſome neighbouring trees, among which it made terrible havock. The Indians were aſtoniſhed at every part of the performance, but the diſcharge of the artillery appeared ſo tremendous, that they fell flat on the ground; and this was no doubt a ſtrong confirmation of that part of the tradition concerning the eaſtern invaders, viz. that they were to be endowed with a power over the elements of fire and water; and by their means capable of deſtroying their enemies.

Cortes now diſmiſſed the ambaſſadors, with preſents of ſuch European commodities as he judged would be moſt acceptable, and which he ſuppoſed would induce the emperor to accept of his viſit: But Montezuma, dreading to introduce ſuch powerful gueſts, ſtill perſiſted in his refuſal; but, in order to render this as little diſagreeable as poſſible, he accompanied it with much richer preſents than before. Theſe had the very ſame effect upon the Spaniards that the former had, namely, to inflame them ſtill more with a deſire to become maſter of a country which promiſed ſuch immenſe wealth. Cortes therefore inſiſted on ſeeing the emperor in ſuch a peremptory manner, that he now received a command in the moſt poſitive terms to depart inſtantly out of his dominions. Inſtead of complying with this order, Cortes perſiſted in his requeſt; the ambaſſadors departed with the utmoſt marks of ſurpriſe, at ſeeing a man who durſt pretend to oppoſe the will of their emperor: All friendly intercourſe with the people of the country immediately ceaſed; and hoſtilities were expected to commence every moment. The worſt was, that a ſtrong party was formed againſt Cortes himſelf, and he was urged to return to Cuba by the malcontents. Juſtly ſuppoſing, however, that the greater part of the army were of a different opinion, he pretended to comply with the deſires of the diſcontented party, and ordered the army to be in readineſs to embark next day for Cuba; but this produced ſuch outcries, that thoſe, who had moſt inſiſted upon the meaſure, were now glad to keep ſilence; a new colony was founded, named *Villa Rica*, magiſtrates and a council were choſen, before whom Cortes diveſted himſelf of his authority, but

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was immediately re-elected chief juſtice of the colony, and captain-general of the army, till the king's pleaſure ſhould be known.

Cortes now began to think of putting his deſigns in execution in good earneſt. Some of the army began to remonſtrate againſt the proceedings of the council as illegal; theſe, however, were quickly ſilenced by clapping them in irons, and ſending them aboard the ſhips; but the general, knowing of how great conſequence it was that his people ſhould be unanimous, quickly releaſed and reconciled them by preſents. Having thus ſtrengthened himſelf by means of *his own* people as much as poſſible, he next began to make alliances with his neighbours. This likewiſe was eaſily accompliſhed. The empire of Montezuma, though to appearance ſplendid and magnificent, was far from being eſtabliſhed on any ſolid baſis. Many of the dependent provinces had been but newly conquered, and the inhabitants having ſtill ſome remembrance of their former liberty, were exceedingly diſcontented, and ready to take the firſt opportunity to revolt. Cortes was thus ſaved the trouble of making even the firſt advances. The Cacique, or petty prince of Zempoalla, a ſtate in ſubjection to Montezuma, ſent ambaſſadors to him, requeſting his friendſhip; and ſeveral others ſoon followed his example. Cortes readily accepted of their offers; but, in order to ſtrengthen himſelf ſtill farther, he cauſed the magiſtrates of his new city Villa Rica write a letter to the king, giving a ſplendid account of his ſucceſs; excuſing him and themſelves for throwing off the yoke of the governor of Cuba, and requeſting his majeſty to give ſanction by his royal authority to what had been done. Still, however, the ſpirit of diſaffection prevailed ſo much among his followers, that Cortes could fall upon no better method of putting a ſtop to it, than to reduce both himſelf and followers to a ſtate of deſperation, by deſtroying his fleet; ſo that they had no reſource but either to conquer or die. The ſoldiers, probably not conſidering well the conſequences of what they were about, complied with his propoſal; the ſhips were drawn aſhore, and broke in pieces, after being ſtripped of their rigging, iron work, and whatever elſe might be of uſe. His next ſtep was to ſend ambaſſadors to the republic of Tlaſcala, in order to court their friendſhip; but this being refuſed, a war enſued, in which the Spaniards were victorious, though oppoſed by an army of more than 40,000 men. The Tlaſcalans, who, with all their numbers, had not been able to deſtroy one of their adverſaries, and regarded them as a ſuperior order of beings, were ſo diſheartened by their defeat, that they ſued for peace, and afterwards became the firm allies of the Spaniards. Thus ſupported, Cortes ſet out for Mexico, as Montezuma, probably intimidated by the noiſe of his exploits againſt the Tlaſcalans, had reſolved to accept of his viſit. In his profeſſions of friendſhip, however, the Mexican monarch was not at all ſincere. He invited the Spaniards to Cholula, looked upon as the moſt holy place in the whole empire, as being the chief reſidence of the prieſts, and where a greater number of human victims were offered than any where elſe. Here he hoped, by the favour of the gods, his enemies might be deſtroyed, and a plot was laid for that purpoſe; but this being diſcovered, the Spaniards fell upon the Cholulans, while unprepared, with ſuch fury and ſucceſs, that they deſtroyed 6000 of them without the loſs of a ſingle man on their part.

Having thus humbled his adverſaries in Cholula, Cortes ſet out directly for the capital; and ſuch was the diſaffection of Montezuma's ſub-

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jects, or the irresolution occasioned by the prophecy concerning the strangers already mentioned, that every mean of defence or opposition was neglected, and the Spaniards allowed to march on without the least molestation.

Montezuma, however, though afraid to oppose the Spaniards openly, did not abandon the design of cutting them off by surprise. With this view he invited them into his capital, and lodged them there in a manner most suitable to their wishes. Here, however, the Indian emperor outwitted Cortes himself. Being thus cooped up in a city, whose situation is very singular, as has already been observed, it was always possible for Montezum to cut off their retreat, by breaking down the causeways, which alone would allow them to pass from the city to the continent. The Spanish general was first warned of his danger by his Tlascalan allies, and being soon convinced of his extreme danger, he formed the desperate resolution of seizing Montezuma in his palace. By this proposal, some of his officers were intimidated, but the most resolute, conscious that their only resource was now in the measure proposed by Cortes, brought over their companions to the scheme, which was accordingly put in execution. Montezuma was seized so suddenly, that he had neither time for recollection, nor power to call his subjects to his relief. He was therefore constrained to remove to the Spanish quarters, and to inform his subjects that he removed voluntarily with a design to reside for some time among his new friends. Here, though received at first with respect, he was afterwards treated very harshly; and even put in chains. Becoming at last entirely subservient to the will of the Spaniards, so that they governed the empire entirely, by shewing him occasionally to the people, and causing him give such orders as he pleased, the Mexicans at last lost all respect for him; and in a tumult knocked him down and wounded him. By this injurious treatment, the unhappy emperor was so much affected, that he obstinately refused all nourishment, and died of abstinence.

On the death of Montezuma, the empire devolved on Quetlavaca his nephew; but he dying in a short time of the small-pox, his son-in-law Guatimozin succeeded him. He was a man of great abilities, and took every method to preserve the liberty of the empire, by cutting of these dangerous invaders. Cortes, in the mean time, sensible that there were now no longer any hopes of peace began to prepare for his retreat. In this, however, he was so violently opposed by the Mexicans, that before he could get over the causeways, he lost above one half of his army, with all his artillery, baggage, and ammunition, and the greater part of his horses, In this disastrous situation, he was obliged to direct his course through an hostile country, and had not gone far, when he fell in with such a multitude of his enemies, that it seemed altogether impossible to escape. The valour of the Spaniards indeed carried every thing before it wherever they attacked; but new enemies still pouring in upon them from all quarters, they must have been finally overwhelmed and destroyed, had it not luckily occurred to Cortes, that the fate of all the Mexican battles depended upon that of the emperor's standard. Observing it therefore displayed at a small distance from the place where he was, he assembled a few of his braveſt officers, whose horses were still capable of service, and pushed forward to it with such impetuosity, that nothing could resist him. The nobles who guarded it were soon dispersed, the

Mexican general killed, and the ſtandard taken; on which the Indians, as if every thing had been loſt, threw away their arms, and fled from their wearied and exhauſted enemies, whom a little longer perſeverance would have entirely put in their power.

This memorable battle, which decided the fate of Mexico, was fought on the 8th of July 1520. From this time the Mexicans never dared to meet Cortes in the field; but the Spaniards, notwithſtanding their victory, would not have been able to accompliſh their purpoſe, had they not received ſome unexpected reinforcements. Thus was Cortes enabled to build a fleet, which he conveyed to the lake, by deepening a rivulet which ran into it into a canal. The Mexicans attacked him with innumerable canoes, but the ſuperiority of the Spaniſh arms ſoon diſperſed and drove them aſhore; the aqueducts which conveyed water to the city were deſtroyed, by which means they were ſoon diſtreſſed to a great degree the waters of the lake being ſalt, and unfit for uſe, as has already been mentioned. They continued to defend themſelves vigorouſly, however, for 75 days; during which ſcarce a ſingle one paſſed without an obſtinate battle. In this ſiege the valour and ſuperior advantages of the arms uſed by the Spaniards were ſo equally balanced, by the numbers of the Mexicans, that there was no reaſon to boaſt on either ſide; neither would Cortes at all have gained his purpoſe, had he not been aſſiſted by vaſt numbers of Indians, and thus employed the ſtrength of the empire againſt itſelf. He himſelf owns that he was aſſiſted by no fewer than 150,000; ſo that we muſt look upon the romantic efforts of valour ſaid to have been exerted in this ſiege, to have been much exaggerated.

With the capital, the whole empire of Mexico fell into the hands of the Spaniards, who ſullied their conqueſts with the moſt abominable cruelty. As the ſcheme had originally been projected from motives of avarice, it was naturally expected that all were to be ſatiated with wealth on the reduction of the capital of ſo rich an empire. Here they found themſelves diſappointed. Guatimozin, finding that there was no hope of retrieving matters, had cauſed all his treaſure to be ſunk in the lake; which exaſperated the conquerors to ſuch a degree, that they tortured him in the moſt cruel manner. This he bore with the utmoſt conſtancy, without diſcovering the place where it had been ſunk; and as his chief miniſter who was in the ſecret, ſeemed ready to yield to the violence of the torments inflicted upon him, Guatimozin, at that time ſtretched on burning coals, ſaid to him, "Do you imagine that I am now lying on a bed of flowers?" Cortes at this, aſhamed of his cruelty, reſcued the emperor, but the miniſter expired in the fire.

After the firſt conqueſts of the Spaniards, they are ſaid to have maſſacred great numbers of Indians out of mere wanton cruelty, and in this the prieſts are likewiſe ſaid to have encouraged them. It is probable, however, that the extreme ſervitude to which they reduced the Indians, and the hard treatment they gave them, were the cauſes which deſtroyed many thouſands, more than the actual maſſacres they committed; though we cannot be induced to believe, that theſe were either few or moderate, however, they may be palliated by modern hiſtorians. Their miſeries at laſt excited the compaſſion of a Spaniard, named Bartholemew de las Caſas, who had in his youth accompanied his father in the firſt voyage of Columbus. His firſt endeavour for the relief of the oppreſſed Mexicans, was to enter into holy orders, in which character he accepted of the biſhopric of Chiapa in Mexico; but find-

ing this insufficient to answer the purpose, he published their case to the world, and accused his countrymen of having destroyed no fewer than 15 millions of the Americans; and as his writings upon this subject have never been contradicted, an indelible disgrace has thus been stamped upon the Spanish name. The court, slow and dilatory as it was, at length paid attention to the reproaches of Las Casas, especially as they found them seconded by all the nations in Europe. The Spaniards were now obliged to allow them wages; and a part of these was reserved for instituting a fund to support the sick or aged Indians. The Spaniards in Mexico were irritated to the last degree, and made many remonstrances, but to no purpose. Las Casas interested himself so warmly in their cause, that the regulations just mentioned were established by royal authority; and since that time there has never been any regular system of oppression, though they still continue to experience those difficulties, which the vanquished never fail to meet with from their conquerors.

Peru was first discovered by Nunez de Balboa, who having been chosen by his companions governor of a small colony on the Isthmus of Darien, used his utmost endeavours to recommend himself to the court of Spain, and get his authority confirmed; for which purpose he was very assiduous in extorting gold from the Indians, and sending it to Spain, that he might establish his credit there. A young cacique, or chief of the Indians, observing the extreme avidity of the Spaniards, and finding them one day quarrelling violently about what he looked upon to be of no value, contemptuously threw the gold out of the balance in which they were weighing it, and told them, that since they desired that metal so much, he could bring them to a country where they should find enough of it. He informed them also, however, that the state was very powerful, and that, in order to conquer it, they must assemble a much greater number of forces than had yet appeared upon the continent. Balboa was transported with this news; and having, by means of a quantity of gold, secured the friendship of the governor of Hispaniola, he quickly obtained a considerable reinforcement. But, though the cacique abovementioned informed him that the country in question was only six days journey from Santa Maria, the difficulties he had to encounter were extreme. The isthmus of Darien, as we have already remarked, is so excessively moist, as to be scarcely habitable. The rains indeed continue for nine months of the year; and, by reason of the extreme quantity that falls, the flat parts are almost one continued marsh. The middle is occupied by lofty mountains, and, notwithstanding the narrowness of the Isthmus itself, there are many large rivers extremely difficult to be passed by an army.

Balboa set out on his very difficult undertaking on the first day of September 1513, when the periodical rains began to abate. He was attended only by 190 Spaniards, and 1000 Indians, who carried the baggage; and he had also along with him some very fierce dogs, which the first conquerors of America had barbarously trained to hunt the naked and almost defenceless Indians. The difficulties he met with were extreme, but every thing was borne with invincible patience, in consideration of the reward expected. After encountering innumerable hardships, he arrived at the South Sea, which, in the most extravagant transport of joy, he went into till the water reached his middle, and took possession of it in the name of the king of Spain, swearing to defend it against

all his enemies. Here he received a particular account of the empire of Peru, but judging it improper to make any attempt with his ſlender force, he returned to Santa Maria, where he had the mortification to find himſelf ſuperſeded in the command of the expedition, which was given to one Pedrarias D'Avila, who had brought with him 15 ſhips and 1200 troops for the purpoſe.

Balboa ſubmitted to the king's pleaſure, and Pedrarias behaved in ſuch a manner as ſoon convinced his majeſty that he had erred in depriving Balboa of the command. He therefore appointed him lieutenant-governor of all the newly diſcovered countries on the South Sea, commanding Pedrarias to conſult with him upon all occaſions. The latter, however, was ſo far from complying with the commands of his ſovereign, that he cauſed Balboa be condemned and executed, under pretence of diſloyalty.

The death of Balboa for ſome time put an end to all thoughts of the conqueſt of Peru; and the ſcheme was looked upon as viſionary. At laſt it was undertaken in 1524, by three adventurers, named Franciſco Pizarro, Diego Almagro, and Hernando Luque. Of theſe Pizarro, as being the leaſt wealthy, offered to take upon himſelf moſt of the trouble and danger; Almagro was to furniſh the ſupplies of men and proviſions; and Luque, who was an eccleſiaſtic, was to remain at Panama, in order to negotiate with the governor of that place, and to ſuperintend the affairs of the whole armament. In conſequence of this agreement, Pizarro ſet out from Panama with a ſingle ſhip, and 112 men; but, happening to undertake the voyage in a wrong time, he was oppoſed by the periodical winds, which blow in that part of the world ſo violently, that he proceeded no farther in 70 days, than what might now be done by an experienced mariner in three. His hardſhips in this voyage, and afterwards, were ſo great, that when advanced to the confines of Peru, his men were ſo much diſheartened, that only 13 of them could be prevailed upon to remain with him. With theſe he fixed his reſidence on the iſland of Gorgona at ſome diſtance from the ſhore, where he was ſoon after reinforced by a few adventurers whom Almagro had prevailed on the governor of Panama to ſend to his relief. With this ſlender reinforcement he determined to go on with his ſcheme at all events; and therefore viſited ſeveral places of the Peruvian empire, bringing away with him ſome veſſels of gold, two of the Peruvian ſheep called *Llamas*; and two young men, whom he propoſed to inſtruct in the Spaniſh language. The empire of Peru at that time was involved in a civil war, and Pizarro, on his return, did not fail to take advantage of this circumſtance. Having received ambaſſadors from Huaſcar and Atabalipa, the two competitors for the throne, of which indeed Atabalipa was in the poſſeſſion, he ſhewed himſelf a traitor to both. Amuſing Atabalipa with the uſual pretence of his countrymen, that he was ambaſſador from a powerful monarch, and brought him news of the utmoſt importance, he ſeized him in the moſt cruel and treacherous manner, making, at the ſame time, a moſt terrible ſlaughter among his unarmed and unſuſpecting followers. Four thouſand of the unhappy Peruvians periſhed upon this occaſion, and as Atabalipa himſelf had come on a ſolemn viſit to Pizarro, attended by vaſt numbers of his nobles, all adorned with gold and precious ſtones, the plunder obtained was immenſe. Still the rapacity of the Spaniards was not ſatisfied, which Atabalipa perceiving, determined to offer ſuch a ranſom

as he thought muſt ſatisfy the utmoſt rapacity that could be imagined, and undoubtedly induce them to give him his liberty. The propoſal he made was to fill a room 22 feet long, and 16 broad, with veſſels of gold, as high as he could reach; on condition that he ſhould obtain his liberty. This propoſal aſtoniſhed even the Spaniards themſelves, notwithſtanding all that they knew of the riches of the country. It was performed, however, by the Peruvian monarch; but the mercileſs Spaniard, inſtead of ſetting him at liberty, put him to death. This produced a general revolt of the Peruvians; but freſh ſupplies of Spaniards now arriving, they were obliged to yield. A dreadful inſurrection took place, however, in 1536, in which not fewer than 200,000 Peruvians appeared in arms; yet, notwithſtanding their utmoſt efforts, the valour and diſcipline of the Spaniards ſtill prevailed, and the miſerable Peruvians were reduced to the moſt abject ſlavery.

This empire was no ſooner conquered, than the conquerors fell to quarrelling with one another. Almagro invaded Chili, but was prevented by Pizarro, who pretended that that country belonged of right to him. The quarrel did not end but by a civil war, in which Almagro was defeated, taken priſoner, and put to death by Pizarro; who thus remained undiſputed maſter of the Peruvian empire. Still, however, the ambition of the Spaniards was not ſatisfied. Gonzales Pizarro, the brother of the general, was ſent to diſcover the country to the eaſtward of the Andes. Immenſe difficulties occurred in his paſſage through the defiles, and over ſome of the ridges of theſe tremendous mountains. Theſe being got over, they deſcended into a flat country, where it rained inceſſantly for two months, without as long an interval as was ſufficient to dry their clothes. Having at laſt got to the banks of the river Napo, one of the large branches of the Maragnon, or river of the Amazons, they built a bark, which being manned with 50 ſoldiers, under the command of Francis Orellana, was ordered to wait for the reſt at the confluence of the Napo with the Maragnon. Inſtead of this, however, Orellana ſailed down the Maragnon itſelf, leaving Gonzales and his companions to their fate; while he, after a moſt tedious navigation, arrived at length at the ocean, over which he ſailed in his crazy bark to a Spaniſh ſettlement in the iſland of Cubagna, and from thence to Spain, where he gave a moſt exaggerated account of his diſcoveries.

In the mean time, Gonzales Pizarro, with his men, arrived after immenſe labour at the confluence of the two rivers; but, finding no appearance of Orellana there, they proceeded 150 miles farther down the river, in hopes of meeting with him. Inſtead of this, they only found one of his officers, whom Orellana had cruelly ſet on ſhore to periſh on that deſart coaſt, becauſe he remonſtrated againſt his perfidy in leaving his commander. The intelligence he gave them ſtruck the boldeſt with terror; as they had now to travel more than 1200 miles through the moſt inhoſpitable country before they could reach Quito, the neareſt place from whence they could expect any relief. In this dreadful journey they were obliged to eat all their dogs and horſes, to feed on the vileſt reptiles, and even to devour the leather of their ſaddles and ſword belts. Of the whole company only 80 got ſafe to Quito; and theſe naked and emaciated to ſuch a degree, that they had the appearance of ſpectres rather than men. On their arrival, they found themſelves involved in difficulties ſtill greater than thoſe they had experienced. An inſurrection had taken place, in which

which the general was killed, and a ſtrong party continued in arms under young Almagro; but he was defeated, taken priſoner, and executed by Vaco di Caſtro, whom the king had ſent over to put an end to the diſturbances. Gonzales himſelf ſhared the ſame fate, after having defeated Nunez Vela, who had been appointed viceroy of Peru. His antagoniſt was named Pedro di la Gaſca, whom the king had finally ſent over to bring matters to ſome kind of ſettlement. Gonzales indeed, after the defeat of the viceroy, might have rendered himſelf independent, but his exceſſive pride and deſpotic behaviour ſo alienated the minds of the people from him, that, on the firſt appearance of La Gaſca, they unanimouſly determined to ſubmit to him. Gonzales, having no reſource but in his own valour and military ſkill, determined to try the event of a battle; but no ſooner was the engagement begun, than he was abandoned by almoſt all his forces; ſo that he was obliged to decide the conteſt by himſelf, with a very few of his officers and troops who continued faithful to the laſt. One of his lieutenants, perceiving that all was loſt, adviſed his general to throw himſelf in among the thickeſt of the enemy, and periſh like an ancient Roman; but Gonzales choſe rather to ſurrender, and was ſoon after executed. Carvajal, a more able and ferocious warrior than Gonzales himſelf, was alſo put to death and quartered. When expiring, he boaſted that he had deſtroyed with his own hand 1400 Spaniards, and 20,000 Indians.

Thus the empire of Peru was totally ſubdued, and the moſt cruel methods were taken to keep the poor and miſerable inhabitants in ſubjection. All the deſcendants of their ancient kings were put to death on various pretences, and ſuch enormities committed in other reſpects, that Philip II. thought proper, through political motives, to diſavow them altogether; but the diabolical conduct of that prince in political matters was ſo well known, that the European nations paid very little regard to his proteſtations, or even his ſigned manual on that ſubject. In other countries the Spaniards behaved much in the ſame manner, though not always with equal ſucceſs In Chili, particularly, the Indians made ſuch a ſtrong reſiſtance, that they never have as yet been thoroughly ſubdued, although they have oftentimes made terrible attacks on the coloniſts.

AMERICAN ISLANDS, including thoſe denominated the WEST INDIES.

THESE are ſo numerous along the vaſt coaſt both of North and South America, that it is impoſſible to give any particular account of them; neither have they been deſcribed by any preceding geographer. The following table exhibits the ſituation and dimenſions of thoſe of North America, which have been ſettled by the European nations, and which, on many accounts, are to be reckoned the moſt remarkable of all thoſe belonging to the New World:

Iſlands.

Islands in the Atlantic, denominated the West Indies, lying between North and South America.

	Islands.	Len.	Bre.	Sq. M.	Chief Towns.	Bel. to.
In the Gulf Atlan. of St Laur.	Newfoundland	360	210	35,400	Placentia	Great Br.
	Cape Breton	120	90	4,010	Louiſburg	Ditto
	St John's	40	40	510	Charlotte-Town	Ditto
	Bermuda iſles	20,020 acres		40	St George	Ditto
	Bahama ditto	very numer.			Naſſau	Ditto
	Jamaica	145	70	6,020	Kingſton	Ditto
	Barbadoes	22	13	142	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St Chriſtopher's	22	8	83	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	22	23	120	St John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Montſerrat	each is about 20 circum.			Charles-Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
	Barbuda	21	22	62		Ditto
	Anguilla	36	11	61		Ditto
	Dominica	27	12	151		Ditto
	St Vincent	25	17	155	Kingſton	Ditto
	Granada	32	16	151	St George's	Ditto
	Tobago	33	10	82		France
	Cuba	710	80	38,410	Havannah	Spain
	Hiſpaniola	452	151	36,010	St Domingo	Do. & Fr.
	Porto Rico	100	50	3,300	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	92	62	2,898	St Joſeph	Ditto
	Margarita	42	25	625		Ditto
	Martinico	64	36	310	St Peter's	France
	Guadaloupe	46	39	252	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
	St Lucia	24	13	92		Ditto
	St Bartholom. Deſeada, and Marigalanta	all of them inconſider.				
	St Euſtatia	30 circum.			The Bay	Dutch
	Curaſſou	31	12	343		Ditto
	St Thomas	16 circum				Denmark
	St Croix	32	12		Baſſe End	Ditto

1. *Newfoundland* is of conſiderable extent, its length being computed at 360 miles, and its breadth at 210. The climate is exceſſively ſevere; the ſky being almoſt always overcaſt, with continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet. The ſoil is rocky and barren; but it has many good harbours, and is watered by a number of rivers. It is almoſt totally covered with woods, which at ſome future period may may be of uſe, though at preſent they are totally inſignificant, on account of the vaſt quantity afforded by the continent. Its principal value, however, at preſent conſiſts in the fiſhery carried on in the neighbourhood of its coaſts, on the ſhoals called the fiſhing banks. Here ſuch numbers of cod and other fiſhes are caught, that the value of thoſe exported to foreign countries amount to no leſs than L. 300,000 annually, beſides what are made uſe of in Britain. Vaſt numbers are likewiſe caught on the ſhores of New Britain, Nova Scotia, New England, and Cape Breton; ſo that very valuable fiſheries are carried on in all theſe places. To the ſouthward of the iſland of Newfoundland are the two ſmall ones of Pierre and St Miquelon. Theſe were ceded to the French by the treaty of Paris in 1763; and, by that of 1783, they are allowed to fiſh on the weſt coaſt of Newfoundland. The chief towns are Bonaviſta, St John, and Placenta; but very few inhabitants remain here during the winter, by reaſon of the ſeverity of the climate.

2. *Cape Breton* lies between Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, and is about 110 miles in length. The ſoil is but very indifferent, but ſome amends is made by the excellence of the harbours, eſpecially that of Louiſburg, which is 12 miles in circumference, with ſix or ſeven fathoms water throughout the whole extent. This iſland, after being a ſubject of diſpute between the French and Britiſh, was finally ceded to the latter by the peace of 1763; ſince which time the fortifications of Louiſburg have been blown up, and the town entirely diſmantled.

3. *St John's* iſland, ſituated in the gulf of St Laurence, is about 30 or 40 miles in length, and, though in the neighbourhood of Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, is greatly ſuperior to both in fertility of ſoil. It is ſo remarkable in this reſpect indeed, that, while it remained in the poſſeſſion of the French, it was ſtiled the granary of Canada.

4. The *Bermudas*, or *Summer Iſlands* had their name at firſt from one John Bermudas, a Spaniard. The name of Summer Iſlands was given them from Sir George Summers, who was ſhipwrecked on the rocks in their neighbourhood in 1609. They are ſituated in 32 degrees north latitude, and 65 weſt longitude; at the diſtance of no leſs than 1500 leagues from the Land's End of England, 1200 from the Madeira Iſlands, and 300 from Carolina. They are of ſmall extent and very difficult of acceſs, but the air is extremely healthful, and the beauty of the country is greatly celebrated. The ſoil is admirably ſuited to the cultivation of vines, but this is not put in practice by the inhabitants, whoſe only occupation is the building light ſloops and brigantines, to be uſed in the trade between America and the Weſt Indies. Theſe veſſels are built of cedar, which is remarkable for its hardneſs and durability, and the veſſels themſelves are remarkable for their ſwiftneſs in ſailing. The inhabitants are about 10,000 in number, and the country they poſſeſs is ſuppoſed not to exceed 20,000 acres.

5. *Lucayos*, or *Bahama* iſlands are ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of Florida, between 20 and 27 degrees of north latitude, and 76 and 81 degrees weſt longitude. They are ſaid to be no fewer than 500 in number,

ber, many of which are mere rocks, and almoſt all of them uninhabited; nevertheleſs twelve of them are large and fertile. Providence, ſituated in north latitude 25°, and weſt longitude 78°, is the principal one among them, by reaſon of its being inhabited; though ſeveral others are larger. It lies about 240 miles to the eaſtward of Florida, and is remarkable for being the firſt place on which Columbus landed in 1492. They were not known to the Britiſh till the year 1667, when captain Seyle was driven among them in a voyage to Carolina. He happened to land on the iſland juſt mentioned, to which he at firſt gave his own name; but, being driven upon it a ſecond time, he gave it the name of *Providence*. An attempt was made to ſettle theſe iſlands in the time of Charles II. but by ſome unlucky accidents, this was prevented; and they became, Providence eſpecially, receptacles for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the weſtern world. For this reaſon the government, in the year 1718, ſent out captain Woods Rogers to diſlodge them. This he did very effectually, erected a fort, and ſettled an independent company in the iſland; ſince which time, ſome of the other iſlands have alſo been ſettled, but theſe colonies have never become any way remarkable. During the laſt war theſe iſlands were reduced by the Spaniards, but were ſoon after retaken by a detachment from St Auguſtine.

WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

THESE lie between the north and ſouth continents of America, and are now poſſeſſed by five European powers, viz. Great Britain, France, Spain, Holland, and Denmark. The climate in all of them is nearly the ſame; and, as they lie within the tropics, they are thus expoſed to a very intenſe heat; the more eſpecially as the vicinity of the continent of America prevents them from enjoying the advantages of their inſular ſituation. Thus the heat would frequently be intolerable, were it not that the trade wind, which riſes gradually as the ſolar rays become more powerful, blows upon them from the ſea, while in the night time the land breezes are equally ſalutary and refreſhing. Theſe breezes blow from the land as from a centre towards every point of the compaſs. When the ſun approaches the tropic of Cancer, he is alſo attended by ſuch a vaſt quantity of clouds, as in a great meaſure leſſens the intenſity of his beams; a vaſt quantity of rain falls, and the ſoil is rendered exceſſively fertile. Theſe rains are far more violent than with us; and fall down with ſuch impetuoſity, that they reſemble rather the pouring of water out of buckets than any thing elſe. Theſe make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in this part of the world; froſt and ſnow are entirely unknown; but, by reaſon of the exceſſive moiſture of the atmoſphere, the climate is exceedingly unhealthy to Europeans; and malignant fevers make their attacks with a degree of violence unknown in Britain.

WEST INDIES
from the latest
AUTHORITIES.

GULF OF MEXICO

ATLANTIC OCEAN

GREAT SOUTH SEA

CARIBBEAN SEA

SOUTH AMERICA

NEW MEXICO

NEW LEON

CUASTECA

PANUCO

MEXICO

GUATEMALA

LOUISIANA

W. FLORIDA

EAST FLORIDA

LUCAYO OR BAHAMA ISLES

HISPANIOLA OR ST. DOMINGO

JAMAICA

CARIBBEE ISLES

LITTLE ANTILLES

TERRA FIRMA

SPANISH MAIN

COSTA RICA

Bay of Campechy

Gulf of Florida

Gulf of Bahama

Tropic of Cancer

British Statute Miles.
100 200 300 400

105 100 95 90 85 80 75 70 65 60 Degrees of Longit. West from London.
30 25 20 15 10

The Weſt India iſlands are not only ſubject to violent thunder and lightning, but to the more terrible phenomena of hurricanes and earthquakes. The hurricanes generally come on in the month of Auguſt, though ſometimes they take place in July or September; but this more rarely than in Auguſt. They are furious ſtorms of wind, attended with the moſt violent rain, thunder, and lightning, ſometimes with an enormous ſwelling of the ſea, and not unfrequently with an earthquake. The violence of the blaſt is ſuch, that nothing can reſiſt its force. The largeſt trees are torn up by the roots, the ſugar-canes ſcattered through the air and carried off to a great diſtance; houſes are blown down; the boilers and ſtills of many hundred weights removed from their fixtures, and daſhed in pieces; while the rain pours down in ſuch ſtreams as ſeem to threaten a ſecond deluge; and, with the violence of the wind, forms a ſcene of which no words can give an adequate idea. Their coming on is ſignified by an extraordinary clearneſs and tranſparency in the ſea water, ſo that the bottom may be ſeen at a great depth, the ſun appears red, there is a dead calm, and the horizon is quite clear, and free from miſts or fogs. At night the ſtars appear larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a kind of burs; and the moon itſelf has alſo an appearance of the ſame kind; the ſea riſes into vaſt waves, and the wind, which uſually blows from the eaſt, ſhifts about and blows from the weſt. During the continuance of the hurricane it blows from almoſt every point of the compaſs, and ſettles at laſt in the point where it began, after which its violence ceaſes.

The principal commodity imported from the Weſt Indies is ſugar, to which moloſſes and rum are appendages. The ſugar-canes grow in vaſt plenty, though it is not yet well aſcertained whether they be natives of America or the Weſt Indian Iſlands, or whether they were imported by the Portugueſe into Braſil from their ſettlements in Africa and the Eaſt Indies. The raw juice is ſaid to be exceedingly wholeſome and nutritive, and to be the leaſt cloying of any ſweet yet diſcovered. The moloſſes are the refuſe of the ſugar, from which, with the addition of thoſe parts of the ſugar-canes which remain after the juice is expreſſed in a mill, the rum is diſtilled. A ſpiritous liquor, but of inferior quality to rum, is likewiſe produced from the ſcummings of the ſugar; ſo that it is computed that the ſpirits and moloſſes pay the whole expence of manufacturing the ſugar, which thus is all clear gain to the planter. The ſugar plantations are therefore very profitable, though no perſon can attempt this buſineſs who has not the command of a great ſum of money; as the expences are computed at no leſs than L. 5000. An overſeer is generally appointed over large plantations, who is commonly rewarded with L. 150 a-year for his trouble; and there are likewiſe under-overſeers and a ſurgeon to take care of the negroes. Theſe laſt are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate, and whatever advantages may be derived from their work, humanity will always ſuggeſt that it is to the laſt degree cruel to keep in ſuch dreadful ſlavery and ſubjection, a vaſt number of our fellow-creatures, equal, if properly educated, to ourſelves and over whom we certainly cannot pretend any right. Their allowance from ſome maſters is only a certain portion of land, which they ſuffer them to cultivate for their ſubſiſtence on Saturday and Sunday: Others generouſly allow them a ſalt herring, or a ſmall bit of pork per day, with ſome Indian corn. Their dreſs conſiſts only of a cap, ſhirt, and pair of breeches annually, with a blanket. Their work is valued at L. 10 or 12 a-year, though

though ſome are ſaid to be worth four times that ſum to their maſters. Before the late war it was ſuppoſed that the number of negroes in the Britiſh Weſt India Iſlands was not leſs than 230,000; while the white people amounted only to 90,000; which diſproportion renders it very dangerous for the latter to irritate them by their cruelty, as is too often the caſe.

The Weſt India Iſlands are ſometimes called the *Caribbees*, from the name of their original inabitants. They are diſtinguiſhed by ſailors into the Windward and Leeward Iſlands, from their ſituation with regard to the courſes of the ſhips; they are alſo diſtinguiſhed into the Great and Little Antilles. The principal of them are the following.

1. *Cuba* lies between 20° and 23° 20' north latitude, and between 73° 30', and 84° 40' weſt longitude; its length being little leſs than 700 miles, and its breadth generally about 80. The ſoil is ſuppoſed to be the beſt of any in the Weſt Indies, producing tobacco and ſugar in great quantities, as well as many valuable ſpices; but, by reaſon of the indolence of the Spaniards, much leſs is exported than might be expected. It has ſeveral good harbours; particularly that of the Havannah, the capital of the iſland, which town contains about 2000 houſes, and is ſtrongly fortified. It was taken, however, by the Britiſh in 1762, but reſtored at the peace next year.

2. *Hiſpaniola*, or *St Domingo*, is likewiſe of very conſiderable extent; being about 452 miles long, and 151 broad. The ſoil is extremely fertile, and the European cattle, which were imported by the Spaniards, have multiplied to ſuch a degree, that they run wild in the woods; and, like thoſe of South America, are hunted merely for the ſake of their hides and tallow. There are gold mines in ſome parts of the iſland, but the working of them has been diſcontinued. The principal town of Hiſpaniola is St Domingo, founded by Bartholemew Columbus, brother to the admiral, who gave it the name in honour of his father Dominic. The iſland is divided between the French and Spaniards; the former being in poſſeſſion of the beſt forts of the iſland; but they have no towns of any conſequence.

3. *Jamaica*, the principal iſland belonging to the Britiſh, is about 145 miles long, and 70 broad in the middle; growing gradually narrower towards each extremity. The air is generally very hot and the climate unfavourable to Europeans; though leſs ſo now than formerly. The thunder and lightning in this iſland is very terrible; the exploſions being tremendous, and the lightning frequently doing much damage. It is likewiſe ſubject to earthquakes, which the inhabitants expect in the months of February and March, and which have ſometimes almoſt ruined the iſland. The rains are extremely violent in the months of May and October; continuing ſometimes for a fortnight together. The ſoil is very fruitful in thoſe productions peculiar to warm climates; but no European grain will grow here. Indigo was formerly much cultivated, but the principal produce now is ſugar and cotton. Black cattle do not thrive well, being few in number, and their fleſh tough and lean; but the mutton and lamb are tolerably good. They have vaſt numbers of both land and ſea-fowl; and parrots, in particular, are more plentiful than in any of the other iſlands. There are great numbers of poiſonous ſerpents bred in the mountains, and ſome lizards in the marſhy places. There is alſo a kind of inſect named the *Ciror*, or *Chegoa*, which eats its way into the fleſh of the feet, or legs, and ſoon breeds in great num-

bers

bers, ſhutting themſelves in a bag. They are not felt till perhaps a week after they have been in the body, when they muſt be picked out with a needle or point of a penknife; but great care muſt be taken that none of the breed be left behind, or a new race will ſoon be produced. A ridge of rocks runs through the middle of the iſland, which the frequent earthquakes tumble upon one another in a ſurpriſing manner. Though theſe have no ſoil upon them, they are nevertheleſs covered with excellent timber, which is nouriſhed by the rains and miſts. Vaſt numbers of ſmall rivers iſſue from among theſe, which fall down in beautiful caſcades, affording moſt delightful proſpects. On each ſide of this ridge are two lower ones, which diminiſh as we go farther from the principal one. The valleys between theſe ridges are very level, and the ſoil exceedingly fertile. Port-Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica, on account of the conveniency of its harbour, which was capable of containing 1000 ſail of ſhips; but in 1692, it was entirely ruined by an earthquake. The earth opened and ſwallowed up the moſt of the houſes, with 2000 people, in two minutes; while water guſhed out in ſuch quantities, as to drown many of thoſe who had eſcaped the danger of the ſhock. A thouſand acres of land ſunk at Savannah, with a number of houſes and people upon it; a lake appearing inſtead of it for ſome time. This was afterwards dried up; but no veſtige of the houſes was to be ſeen. Port-Royal was re-built after this diſaſter, but in ten years it was totally deſtroyed by fire. It was rebuilt again, and a third time deſtroyed by an hurricane; on which the inhabitants forſook it altogether, and removed to Kingſton, on a bay oppoſite to that of Port-Royal, which is now become the capital of the iſland. St Jago de la Vega was the capital of Jamaica, while the Spaniards had it in their hands; but it is now inferior to Kingſton, though the courts of juſtice are held there. In the year 1780, the town of Savannah la Mar was almoſt entirely ruined, as well as part of the adjacent country, by a moſt dreadful hurricane, by which great numbers of people loſt their lives.

4. *Porto Rico* belongs to the Spaniards, and is about 100 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. The ſoil is extremely fertile, and its produce much the ſame with thoſe already deſcribed. Some quantity of gold was met with here on the arrival of the Spaniards, but it has been long ſince exhauſted.

5. *Trinidad*, the iſland next in ſize to thoſe already deſcribed, is about 92 miles long and 62 broad, ſituated in north latitude 10° and weſt longitude 61° 30′, being ſeparated from the continent by the Straits of Paria. The climate is unhealthy, but the ſoil extremely fertile, producing ſugar, indigo, tobacco, ginger, ſome cotton-trees, &c.

6. *Margaretta* lies on the northern coaſt of Terra Firma, from which it is ſeparated by a ſtrait 24 miles broad; the iſland itſelf being 42 miles in length, and 25 in breadth. The ſoil is fruitful, but there is a ſcarcity both of wood and water. There was formerly a pearl fiſhery on the coaſt, but it is now diſcontinued.

7. *Barbadoes*, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbee Iſlands, is but of very ſmall extent, being only 21 miles long and 14 broad; notwithſtanding which it is a very valuable ſettlement, and, in the year 1676, was ſuppoſed to contain 150,000 inhabitants; but that immenſe population is now ſomewhat declined, and it is ſuppoſed not to have more than 120,000, of whom 100,000 are ſlaves. Its produce is the ſame with that of the other iſlands. It ſuffered exceſſively by the hurricane

of 1780, which ſcarce left a houſe ſtanding in the whole iſland, vaſt numbers of people being buried in the ruins, or hurried into ſea, where they periſhed.

8. *St Chriſtophers* is about 22 miles long, and eight broad, taking its name from the celebrated Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. In a ſhort time, however, they abandoned it, and it was ceded to Britain by the treaty of Utrecht. Its produce is ſugar, cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits. It was taken by the French in the laſt war, but ceded to Britain by the treaty of 1783.

9. *Antigua* is almoſt of a circular form; being about 23 miles in diameter every way. Its harbour is reckoned the beſt and ſafeſt dock-yard in the Weſt Indies, and is conſidered as an eſtabliſhment for the royal navy.

10. and 11. *Nevis* and *Montſerrat* are two inconſiderable iſlands about 20 miles in circumference, lying to the ſouth of Antigua and St Chriſtophers; the ſoil, however, is very fertile, and they produce a conſiderable quantity of ſugar. They were taken by the French in the laſt war, but reſtored in 1783.

12. *Barbuda* is about 21 miles long and 22 broad; the ſoil is very fertile, and the inhabitants chiefly employ themſelves in agriculture and huſbandry.

13. *Anguilla* is ſituated in north latitude 18° 25′, and weſt longitude 63°, and is about 36 miles long and 11 broad, its climate is nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica; the ſoil is fertile, and the people employ themſelves in huſbandry.

14. *Dominica*, ſituated in north latitude 15° 30′, and weſt longitude 61° 25′, is near 28 miles long and 12 broad. The ſoil is better adapted for coffee than ſugar; and on the ſides of the hills the fineſt timber in the Weſt Indies is produced.

15. *St Vincent*, ſituated in north latitude 13° 20′, and weſt longitude 61° 27′, is about 25 miles long and 17 broad. The ſoil is very fruitful, being a ſtrong black mould upon a loamy bottom, and is very proper for raiſing ſugar canes. Indigo thrives here extremely well, but is much leſs cultivated now than formerly throughout the Weſt Indies. It was reduced by the French in 1779, but reſtored in 1783.

16. *Granada* and the *Grenadines*. The iſland of Granada is about 32 miles long and 16 broad. It is extremely fertile; producing all the valuable articles for which the other iſlands are remarkable. It is ſupplied with fine water by a lake ſituated on the top of a hill in the middle of the iſland. It enjoys a privilege very uncommon in the Weſt Indies, viz. that of being free from hurricanes; and it has likewiſe many fine and convenient harbours. The Granadines are ſome ſmall iſlands lying to the northward of Granada.

17. *Martinico*, ſituated between 14 and 15 degrees of north latitude, and in 61 degrees weſt longitude, is about 64 miles long and 36 broad. The inland parts are hilly, from which, however, a number of ſtreams proceed, that greatly fertilize and enrich the country. The produce is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and the tropical fruits; but ſugar is the principal article. This iſland was taken by the Britiſh in the war of 1755, but reſtored in 1763.

18. *Guadalupe* is ſituated in north latitude 16° and weſt longitude 61° 51′, and is near 46 miles long and 40 broad. This properly conſiſts of two iſlands; for it is divided in the middle by a ſmall arm of the

the ſea, ſo narrow indeed that ſhips cannot paſs, but it is croſſed by the inhabitants in a ferry boat. It produces a vaſt quantity of ſugar. It was reduced by the Britiſh in 1759, but reſtored to the French in 1763.

19. *St Lucia* is about 24 miles long, and 13 broad; the ſoil is very rich, and the iſland in general very pleaſant. Beſides the common productions of the Weſt India Iſlands, St Lucia has likewiſe excellent timber. It has many pleaſant rivers and fine harbours. It was taken by the Britiſh in 1778, but reſtored to France in 1783.

20. *Tobago*, ſituated in 11° 25′ north latitude, is upwards of 33 miles long, and about ten broad. The air is leſs ſultry than might be expected from its ſoutherly ſituation, and it has likewiſe the advantage of being exempted from hurricanes. The ſoil is extremely fruitful, and capable of producing not only the common Weſt India articles, but likewiſe cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended themſelves moſt obſtinately againſt the French. It was declared neutral in 1748; but yielded up to Britain in 1763. In 1781 it was taken by the French, and the poſſeſſion of it confirmed to them in 1783.

21, 22, and 23. The Iſlands of *St Bartholomew*, *Marigalante*, and *Deſeada*, likewiſe belong to the French. They lie in the neighbourhood of Antigua, but are ſmall, and of importance only in time of war, when they give ſhelter to a vaſt number of privateers, which greatly diſtreſs the Britiſh trade in the Weſt Indies.

24, and 25. *St Euſtatius* and *Curaſſou* are two iſlands belonging to the Dutch. The former ſeems by nature deſtined to be entirely barren and uninhabited; being no other than a pyramidal mountain 30 miles in circumference, and having neither ſprings nor rivers. The induſtry of the Dutch, however, has overcome all difficulties, and they have formed many fine ſettlements on the ſides of the hill, where it is capable of cultivation. It was taken by the Britiſh in 1781, and the inhabitants treated with great rigour; but the ſame year it was retaken by the marquis de Bouille, governor of Martinico, with a very inconſiderable force.

26. *Curaſſou*, ſituated near the coaſt of Terra Firma, is about 31 miles long and 12 broad; and is almoſt as barren by nature as the former. Here, however, the ſame perſeverance and patient induſtry for which the Dutch are ſo remarkable has again overcome nature itſelf; and the iſland now produces a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar. Every kind of labour in this iſland is performed by machines; ſome of which are ſo powerful, and conſtructed with ſuch ingenuity, that an entire veſſel may be lifted up at once into by them the dock. Here are ſome good ſalt-works; for which commodity there is a conſiderable demand both from the adjacent iſlands and the continent. The principal advantage derived from this iſland, however, ariſes from the contraband trade carried on by the inhabitants with the Spaniards. Even in times of peace, the commerce of this iſland is ſuppoſed to be worth L. 500,000; but in war, when it becomes the emporium of the Weſt Indies, its value is ſtill greater.

27. Beſides theſe iſlands, the Dutch are in poſſeſſion of ſeveral ſmaller ones in their neighbourhood, viz. *Bonaire*, *Aruba*, *Saba*, and *St Martin's*, which may be conſidered as appendages to Curaſſou. The two laſt were taken

ken by the Britiſh during the laſt war, but afterwards retaken by the French.

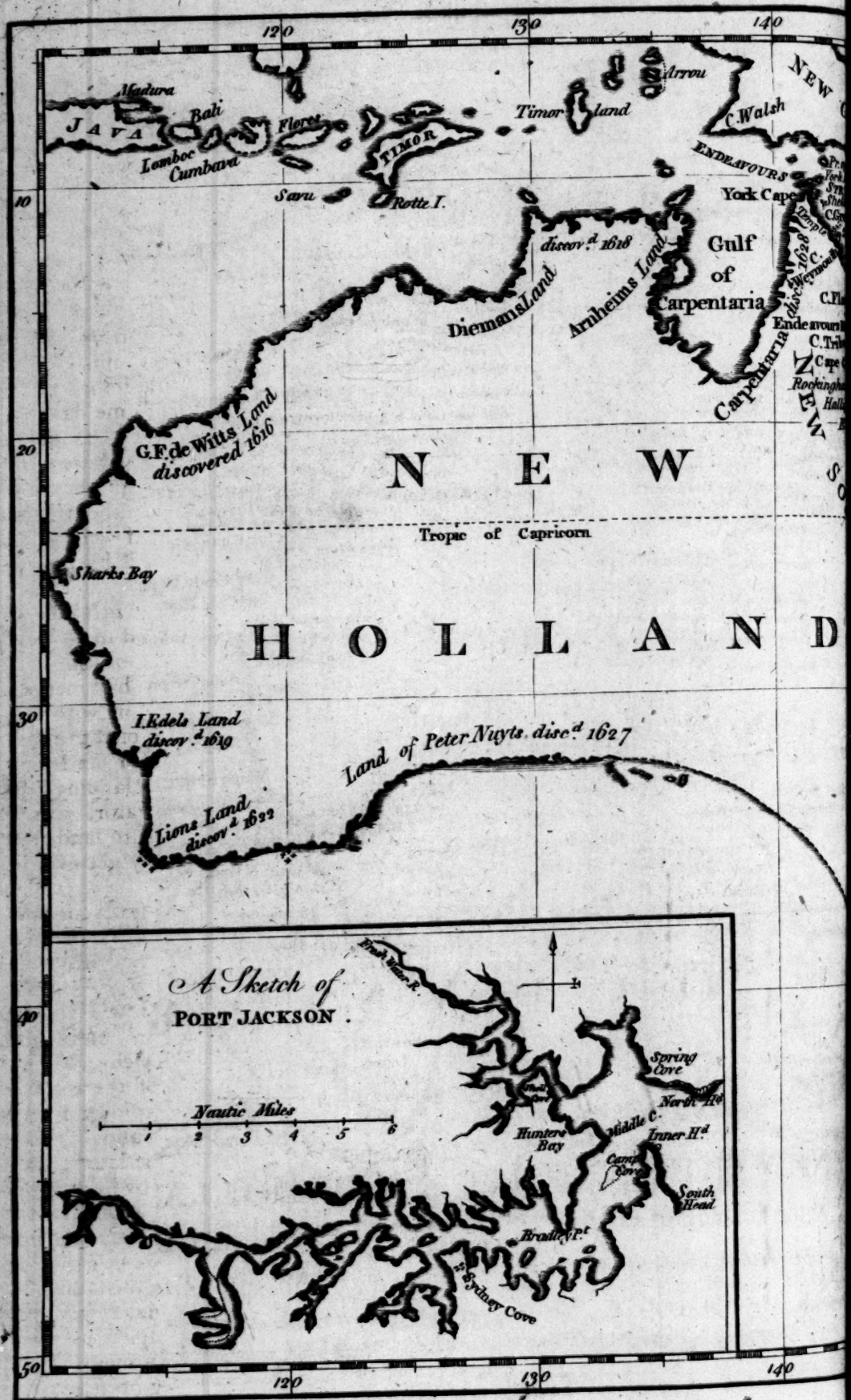
28, 29. *St Thomas*, and *St Croix*, or *Santa Cruz*, are two ſmall and unhealthy iſlands, ſituated about 18° north latitude, and belonging to Denmark. Formerly they were in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt India Company; but the king ſome time ago bought up that Company's ſtock, and laid the trade entirely open, ſince which time St Thomas has been ſo much improved, that it produces upwards of 1500 tons of ſugar annually, beſides other Weſt India commodities in tolerable plenty. Prizes are brought in here for ſale in time of war; and a great trade is carried on with the Spaniſh colonies. Santa Cruz is alſo greatly improved within theſe few years.

The iſlands belonging to South America are the Falkland iſles, Terra del Fuego on the eaſt ſide, and Chiloe and Juan Fernandes on the weſt. The Falkland iſles were once ſettled by the Britiſh, but this ſettlement was oppoſed by the Spaniards; and, though the conteſt was at laſt given up on the part of the latter, the ſettlement was ſoon after evacuated by the Britiſh; to avoid, as was ſuppoſed, giving umbrage to the Spaniſh court. Indeed the climate and ſoil of theſe iſlands is ſo bad, that it was ſcarce poſſible for any colony to have ſubſiſted there.

30. The iſland of *Chiloe* lies on the weſtern coaſt of Chili. It is very fertile, and the climate much the ſame with that of the oppoſite continent.

31. *Juan Fernandes* lies in ſouth latitude 33° and weſt longitude 83°. It is entirely uninhabited, but has ſome very good harbours; ſo that it is very convenient for Britiſh cruizers to water there, eſpecially as they are not in any danger of being diſcovered by the Spaniards, as the iſland is at a great diſtance from any of their ſettlements. This iſland is famous for giving riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe; the foundation of which is as follows: One Alexander Selkirk, a native of Scotland, being left on the iſland by his captain, was reduced to the neceſſity of remaining here for ſome years, till he was at laſt relieved by captain Woods Rogers in 1709. The long time he had ſtaid in ſolitude affected him to ſuch a degree that he forgot his language, and was not able to ſpeak in an intelligible manner. He had loſt all reliſh for the ordinary victuals uſed by his countrymen; he could eat no ſalt, nor could he eat any of the ſhips proviſions. During the time that he reſided on the iſland he had acquired an amazing ſwiftneſs of foot; ſo that he was able to overtake the wild goats who abounded there. In the four years he ſtaid here, he run down, in this manner, at leaſt 500 goats, which he marked on the ear, and let go. Lord Anſon's people caught ſome of theſe about 30 years afterwards. Selkirk was adviſed to publiſh an account of his adventures; but wiſhing to make them appear to the public in as good a dreſs as poſſible, he gave the papers to Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. By the help of theſe, Mr Defoe fabricated the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe; returning them to Selkirk again, ſo that the latter derived no advantage from them.

Having now finiſhed our account of the various parts of the world which have been commonly taken notice of in geographical works of this kind, we ſhall next proceed to give an account of theſe newly diſcovered countries, as far as we are authoriſed by the lateſt publications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130
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Madura
Bali
JAVA
Flores
Lombock
Cumbava
TIMOR
Timor land
Arrou
C. Walsh
NEW
ENDEAVOURS
Saru
Rotte I.
York Cape
discov.d 1618
Gulf
of
Carpentaria
Diemans Land
Arnheims Land
C. Wessels
Carpentaria
G.F. de Witts Land
discovered 1616
N E W
Tropic of Capricorn
Sharks Bay
H O L L A N D
I. Edels Land
discov.d 1619
Land of Peter Nuyts. discd 1627
Lions Land
discov.d 1622
A Sketch of
PORT JACKSON.
Fresh Water R.
Spring
Cove
North Hd
Nautic Miles
1 2 3 4 5 6
Hunters
Bay
Middle C.
Inner Hd
South
Head
Bradleys Pt.
Sydney Cove

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L.d Ansons I.
Bay Choiseul
NEW GEORGIA
Gowers I.
Carterets I.
Charlotte I.s
Volcano
Swallow I.
N.Alderney
Egmont or St.a Cruz
Port Surville
C. Deliverance
SOUTH
Pico d'Averdi
Aurora
Whitsuntide I.
Espiritu Santo
Malicollo
Ambrym
NEW HEBRIDES
Sandwich I.s
Erromango
Tanna
Erronan
Annotam
C. Colnett
NEW CALEDONIA
C. Coronation
Q. Charlotte's Foreland
Isle of Pines
Ridge of Diana
Cape Sandwich
Cape Cleveland
Cape Gloucester
Cumberland Isles
Cape Conway
Northumberland I.s
Cape Townsend
Cape Manifold
Cape Capricorn
Keppel Bay
Bustard Bay
Hervey's Bay
Sandy Cape
Wide Bay
Glass House Bay
Morton Bay
Cape Morton
Point Danger
Cape Byron
Mount Warning
Solitary Isles
Smoaky Cape
St.a Chd. Middletons I.
Norfolk I.
PACIFIC
Lord Howes I.
Cape Hawke
Port Stephens
Port Jackson
Botany Bay
C. Banks
C. Solander
Cape St.t George
Bateman Bay
C. Dromedary
Cape Howe
3 Kings
C Mar.e Van Dieman
Mount Camel
False Bay
Cape North
Sandy Bay
Cape Brett
Barrier Isles
Cape Colvill
Mercury Bay
B. of Plenty
C. East
NEW ZEALAND
Gannet I.
Cape Egmont
Table C.
Hawkes Bay
OCEAN
Cape Farewell
Cape Foulwind
C. Pallisers
Admiralty Bay
Cape Campbell
Cascades Point
Doubtfull H.
Banks's Isle
TAVAI-POENAMMOO
Cape West
Cape Saunders
Solanders Isle
Cape South
The Traps
Diemans Land discoverd 1642
ZEELAND
NEW HOLLAND,
& the adjacent Islands,
agreeable to the Latest
DISCOVERIES.
Longitude East from London

in exploring which, the Britiſh navigators have had ſuch a conſiderable ſhare.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

I. NEW HOLLAND,

THE largeſt iſland in the world, and, formerly ſuppoſed to be a part of that imaginary continent called Terra Auſtralis Incognita, lies between 10° 30′ and 43° ſouth latitude, and between 110° and 153° 30′ eaſt longitude; extending in all as much as the whole continent of Europe, the eaſtern coaſt running no leſs than 2000 miles in length from north-eaſt to ſouth weſt. Its dimenſions from eaſt to weſt have not been ſo exactly aſcertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who viſited this part of the world at a time when the method of making obſervarions, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was leſs accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of theſe diſcoverers, as Van Diemen's Land, Carpentaria, &c.; and though the original appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and weſt parts of the country. The eaſtern part, called New South Wales, was taken poſſeſſion of in his majeſty's name by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the Britiſh dominions, a colony being very lately formed there, chiefly of the convicts ſentenced to tranſportation.

The accounts of the climate and ſoil of this extenſive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various, and indeed it cannot be expected otherwiſe, as different parts have been explored at different times, and at different ſeaſons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the ſea-coaſt, the only place on which any inhabitants have been diſcovered, appearing ſandy and barren, and as for the inland parts, which might reaſonably be ſuppoſed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural ſtertility of the ſoil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet diſcovered.

One thing we are aſſured of, by all who have ever viſited this country, that its coaſt is ſurrounded by very dangerous ſhoals and rocks, ſo that it is by no means eaſy to effect a landing upon it. A ſhoal called Houtman's Abrolhos, or Shoal, from Frederic Houtman, commander of a fleet of Dutch Indiamen in 1618, lies on the weſtern coaſt, on which commodore Pelſart, a Dutch navigator, was wrecked in 1629. When his ſhip, the Batavia, having on board 330 men, ſtruck on this ſhoal, there was no land in ſight, excepting ſome ſmall rocky iſlands, and one conſiderably bigger, about three leagues diſtant. All theſe were explored in ſearch of freſh water, but none being found, they were obliged

to ſail in their ſkiff for the continent, which they ſoon after diſcovered. But, on their approach, they found the coaſt ſo exceſſively rocky, that it was impoſſible to land. Continuing their courſe northward for two days, they found themſelves in 27 degrees ſouth latitude, but ſtill the ſhore was ſo extremely ſteep, that there was no poſſibility of approaching it. It preſented the ſame appearance as far north as 24 degrees; but the men being now reſolved to get on ſhore at any rate, ſix of them who were expert ſwimmers, threw themſelves into the ſea, and with much ado got to land. Here they employed themſelves in ſearching for freſh water, but finding none they were obliged to ſwim back again to their ſkiff. Next day they diſcovered a cape, from the extreme points of which ran a ridge of rocks for about a mile into the ſea, with another behind it; but ſtill no paſſage was found to the continent. Another opening appeared about noon the ſame day, into which they ventured, though the paſſage was extremely dangerous, even for a ſkiff, having only two feet water, with a rugged ſtony bottom. Here, however, they effected a landing, but though they made the moſt diligent ſearch for freſh water, they could find neither rivulets, ſprings, nor even water that could be drank by digging of wells. The ſhoal on which commodore Pelſart was wrecked, is placed by Dampier in 27 degrees ſouth latitude. See map of N. H.

This navigator explored the coaſt of New Holland in 1688 and 1699. In the laſt of theſe voyages he fell in with the land in 26° ſouth latitude; but could not land on account of the ſteepneſs of the ſhore. In 22° 22′, he found another ſhoal, which was the firſt he had met with ſince leaving the Abrolhos in 27°. In 20° 21′, he fell in with ſome rocky iſlands, which, from the nature of the tides, he ſuppoſed to extend in a range as far ſouth as Shark's Bay, in 25°, and nine or ten leagues in breadth from eaſt to weſt. In 18° 21′, he effected a landing, but the ſhore here, as in all other places viſited by this navigator, was exceſſively rocky at low water, ſo that it is then impoſſible to land. At high water, however, the tides riſe ſo high, that boats may get over the rocks to a ſandy beach, which runs all along the coaſt.

The ſouthern part of this iſland, viſited by captain Taſman in 1642, was found leſs difficult of acceſs. He purſued the coaſt as far ſouth as 44 degrees, where it begins to run to the eaſtward; and from his time the country appears not to have been viſited by any Europeans, till the year 1770, when captain Furneaux of the Adventure reached the point we ſpeak of, lying in 43° 17′ ſouth, by lunar obſervation, 145° 36′, and by account, 143° 10′ eaſt from Greenwich. Several iſlands appeared to the north-weſt, though the fogginеſs of the weather prevented them from being ſeen diſtinctly. From a point of land, apparently the ſame with that called the South Cape by Taſman, three iſlands and ſeveral rocks lay to the eaſtward. One of the latter, probably the ſame called by Taſman, Pedra Blanca, was by Furneaux named Sicily; the moſt ſoutherly he called Mewſton, and a third, about a league to the eaſtward of Sicily, was named by captain Cook, Eddyſtone, from its reſemblance to the light houſe of that name; and he obſerves, that nature ſeems to have left theſe two rocks for the ſame purpoſe that the Eddyſtone light-houſe was built by man, viz. to give navigators warning of their danger; for they are the conſpicuous ſummits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the ſea in many places breaks very high. Their ſurface is white with the dung of ſea-fowls,

which makes them conſpicuous at a conſiderable diſtance, even in the night-time.

After paſſing theſe iſlands the coaſt winds with a bold ſhore to the ſouth-eaſt cape (ſuppoſed by captain Cook to be Taſman's South Cape) lying in north latitude 43° 30′ and eaſt longitude 147°; and here alſo the ſhore is rocky and unfavourable for landing, as the wind blows continually from the weſt, and occaſions ſuch a ſurf that the ſand cannot lie on the ſhore. Captain Furneaux, arriving here on the 10th of March 1770, ſent off his ſecond lieutenant with the great cutter, in order to examine whether there was any harbour or bay for ſhipping along the coaſt. The officer landed with great difficulty, but could diſcover no place where any ſhip could caſt anchor; and the ſame difficulty of landing continued as they purſued their courſe along the eaſt coaſt to 43° 20′ ſouth. Setting ſail from this bay northward, he found the coaſt continue equally inacceſſible, without any harbour or bay where ſhips might caſt anchor. From the latitude of 40° 50′ to that of 39° 50′ ſouth is nothing but iſlands and ſhoals; the land high, rocky, and barren. In 40° 30′ ſouth latitude, obſerving breakers about half a mile off within ſhore, he kept at a diſtance from the land, and then, leaving the coaſt of New Holland altogether, ſteered for Charlotte's Sound in New Zealand, to meet with captain Cook, whoſe account of the coaſt we ſhall now follow.

This celebrated navigator ſpent upwards of four months in ſurveying the eaſtern coaſt, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. This country terminates to the northward at York Cape, in ſouth latitude 10° 30′, and to the ſouth at Point Hicks, in 43° 30′ ſouth; the coaſt extending as far as Smoaky Cape in 30° 30′, lying in the direction of N. E. by N. and S. W. by S.; thence running due north to Sandy Cape, in latitude 24° 45′; from which laſt point the land ſtretches nearly in a ſtraight line N. W. by N. and S. E. by S. quite to York Cape at the entrance of Endeavour Straits, which ſeparate New Holland from an iſland to the northward. As no land was to be ſeen to the ſouthward of Point Hicks, captain Cook ſailed to the north, finding the ſhore flat and covered with a white ſand as far as 37° 51′, but without any appearance of a harbour till they came to 35° 45′. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of herbs found on ſhore, was called *Botany-Bay*, and is the place for which the convicts were originally deſtined; though now they are ſettled in another part of the iſland, about 15 miles to the northward, named, by captain Cook, Port Jackſon, the principal ſettlement being called *Sydney Cove*.

This was not viſited or explored by captain Cook; it was ſeen at the diſtance of between two and three miles from the coaſt, but had fortune conducted him into that harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention as a ſeaman than Botany Bay, where he paſſed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackſon gradually extends into a noble and capacious baſon, having ſoundings ſufficient for the largeſt veſſels, and ſpace to accommodate, in perfect ſecurity, any number that could be aſſembled. It runs chiefly in a weſtern direction about 13 miles into the country, and contains no leſs than 20 ſmall coves formed by narrow necks of land, whoſe projections afford ſhelter from the winds.

Sydney Cove lies on the ſouth ſide of the harbour, between five and ſix miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is

moſtly covered with wood, yet ſo rocky, that it is not eaſy to comprehend how the trees could have found ſufficient nouriſhment to bring them to ſo conſiderable a magnitude. The ſoil in other parts of the coaſt, immediately about Port Jackſon, is of various qualities. That neck of land which divides the ſouth end of the harbour from the ſea is chiefly ſand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany Bay the firſt ſpace is occupied by a wood, in ſome parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that is a kind of heath, poor, ſandy, and full of ſwamps; but, as far as the eye can reach to the weſtward, the country is one continued wood.

There are ſeveral parts of the harbour in which the trees ſtand at a greater diſtance from each other than in Sydney Cove; ſome of theſe, which have ſmall runs of water, and a promiſing ſoil, the governor propoſed to cultivate, as ſoon as hands could be ſpared; but the advantage of being able to land the ſtores and proviſions with ſo much eaſe, immediately determined his choice of a place for the principal ſettlement; for, if they had but one mile to remove the ſtores from the ſpot where they were landed, the undertaking would probably have been fruitleſs; ſo many were the obſtacles to land carriage at the head of Sydney Cove, where governor Phillips fixed the ſeat of his government. The 7th February 1788 was the memorable day on which a regular form of government was eſtabliſhed on the coaſt of New South Wales. For obvious reaſons all poſſible ſolemnity was given to the proceedings neceſſary on this occaſion.

On a ſpace previouſly cleared the whole colony was aſſembled; the military drawn up and under arms; the convicts ſtationed apart; and near the perſon of the governor thoſe who were to hold the principal offices under him. The royal commiſſion was then read by Mr David Collins the judge advocate. By this inſtrument, Arthur Phillips was conſtituted and appointed captain-general and governor in chief, in and over the territory called New South Wales, extending from the extremity of the north coaſt, called Cape York, ſouth latitude 10° 37′, to the ſouthern extremity of the South Cape, ſouth latitude 43° 30′, and all the inland country to the weſtward, as far as eaſt longitude 135°, including all the iſlands adjacent in the Pacific Ocean within the latitudes aforeſaid; and of all the towns, garriſons, caſtles, forts, and fortifications which may be hereafter erected in the ſaid territory. The act of parliament eſtabliſhing the courts of judicature were next read; and laſtly, the patents under the great ſeal, empowering the proper perſons to convene and hold theſe courts whenever the exigency ſhould require. A triple diſcharge of muſquetry concluded this part of the ceremony.

The 4th of June was not ſuffered to paſs without due celebration. It was a day of remiſſion from labour, and a general feſtivity took place through the whole ſettlement. At ſun riſe the Sirius and Supply tranſports fired each a ſalute of 21 guns; and again at one o'clock the mariners on ſhore ſaluted with three vollies; at ſun-ſet the ſame honours were a third time repeated from the ſhips; large bon-fires were lighted, and the whole camp afforded a ſcene of joy. That there might not be any exception to the happineſs of this day, four convicts, who had been reprieved from death, and baniſhed to an iſland in the middle of the harbour, received a full pardon, and were ſent for to bear their part in the general exultation. The governor ſaid he hoped there was not a ſingle heavy heart in this part of his Majeſty's dominions. His hou[ſe] wa[s]

was the centre of conviviality to all who could be admitted to that ſociety: it was at this time that the name of Cumberland county was given by the government to this part of the territory. It is above 50 miles in length and 30 broad. The boundaries fixed for Cumberland county were on the weſt of Cororthen and Lanſdown hills; on the north it reaches a little beyond Broken Bay; and on the ſouth extends to the ſouthern parts of Botany Bay; thus including completely theſe three principal bays, which made the chief place of ſettlement at Sydney Cove near the centre.

At the very firſt landing of Governor Phillips on the ſhore of Botany Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed, but on ſeeing the governor approach with ſigns of friendſhip, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

They were perfectly devoid of clothing, yet ſeemed fond of ornaments, putting the beads and red baize that were given them on their heads or necks, and appearing pleaſed to wear them.

There was no kind of diſagreement between the natives and the Britiſh while the ſhips remained at Botany Bay. The governor, immediately after landing, examined the bay itſelf; when it appeared, that, tho' extenſive, it afforded no ſhelter from the eaſterly winds; and that, in conſequence of its ſhallowneſs, ſhips of a moderate draught would always be obliged to anchor at the entrance of the bay, where they muſt be expoſed to a heavy ſea that rolls in whenever it blows from the eaſtward. Several runs of freſh water were found in different parts of the bay; but there did not appear to be any ſituation to which there was not ſome very ſtrong objections. In the northern part of it is a ſmall creek, which runs a conſiderable way into the country, but it has water only for a boat; the ſides of it are frequently overflown, and the low lands near it are a perfect ſwamp.

The weſtern branch of the bay is continued to a great extent, but the officers ſent to examine it could not find any ſupply of freſh water, except in very ſmall quantities. Point Sutherland afforded the moſt eligible ſituation, having a run of good water, though not in very great abundance. But to this part of the harbour the ſhips could not approach; and the ground near it, even in the higheſt parts, was in general damp and ſpungy. Smaller numbers might indeed in ſeveral ſpots have found a comfortable reſidence; but no place was found in the whole of Botany Bay which ſeemed at all calculated for the reception of ſo large a ſettlement. While this examination was carried on, the Sirius, with the remainder of the convoy, on the 20th arrived. The Supply had not ſo much outſailed the other ſhips as the governor expected ſhe would have done.

The openneſs of the bay, and the dampneſs of the ſoil, by which the people would probably be rendered unhealthy, made the governor determine to ſeek another ſituation.

That Botany Bay ſhould have appeared to captain Cook in a more advantageous light than to governor Phillips, is not by any means extraordinary. The objects were very different; the one required only ſhelter and refreſhment for a ſmall veſſel, and for a ſhort time; but the other had great numbers to provide for, and was neceſſitated to find a place to which ſhips of conſiderable burthen might approach.

The different coves of Port Jackſon were examined with all expedi-

tion, and the preference was given to one which had the fineſt ſpring of water; and in which ſhips can anchor ſo cloſe to the ſhore, that at a very ſmall expence quays may be conſtructed, at which the largeſt veſſels may unload.

After they had all landed at Sydney Cove, a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal ſtreets, the governor's houſe, main-guard, hoſpital, church, ſtore houſes, and barracks. In ſome parts of this ſpace, temporary barracks are erected, but no permanent building will be allowed, except in conformity to the plan laid down. Should the town be farther extended in future, the form of other ſtreets are alſo marked out, in ſuch a manner as to enſure a free circulation of air. The principal ſtreets, according to this deſign, will be 200 feet wide; the ground to the ſouthward propoſed for them is nearly level, and is an excellent ſituation for buildings. It is propoſed by the governor, that no more than one houſe is to be built upon one allotment, which is to conſiſt of 60 feet in front, and 150 in depth. The regulations will prevent a kind of uniformity in the buildings, and narrow ſtreets; and will exclude many inconveniencies which the rapid increaſe of inhabitants might otherwiſe occaſion. It has been alſo an object of the governor's attention, to place the public buildings in ſituations that will be eligible at all times, and particularly to give the ſtore-houſes and hoſpital ſufficient ſpace for future enlargement, ſhould it be found neceſſary hereafter.

The firſt huts erected were compoſed of very periſhable materials, viz. the ſoft wood of the cabbage palms; being only deſigned to afford immediate ſhelter. The neceſſity of uſing the wood quite green made it alſo the leſs likely to prove durable. The huts of the convicts were ſtill more ſlight, being compoſed only of upright poſts, walled with ſlight twigs, and plaiſtered over with clay. Barracks and huts were afterwards formed of materials rather more laſting. Buildings of ſtone might eaſily have been raiſed, had there been any means of procuring lime or mortar. The ſtone which has been found is of three ſorts; a free-ſtone, reckoned equal in goodneſs to that of Portland; an indifferent kind of ſandy-ſtone, or fire-ſtone, and a ſort which appears to contain a mixture of iron. But neither chalk nor any ſpecies of lime-ſtone, have yet been diſcovered. In building a ſmall houſe for the governor, on the eaſtern ſide of the cove, lime was made of oyſter-ſhells, collected in the neighbouring coves; but buildings will go on very ſlowly, unleſs chalk or lime ſtone can be found. The clay is very good, and ſome bricks have been made of it, but in uſing it as a material for building, the walls muſt be made very thick.

In a country expoſed to frequent ſtorms of thunder and lightning, it was rather an uneaſy ſituation to have all the proviſions and other neceſſaries lodged in wooden buildings, covered with thatch of the moſt combuſtible kind. Inſtead of thatch, however, they now uſe ſhingles made from a tree in appearance like fir, but producing a wood not unlike the Engliſh oak; but this, though more ſecure than thatching, is not enough for ſtore-houſes. For theſe, if ſlate ſtone ſhould not be found, tiles muſt be made of the clay which has been uſed for bricks. The principal farm is ſituated in the next cove, to the eaſt of the town, and leſs than half a mile from it. When the plan was drawn, it contained about nine acres laid down in corn of different kinds. Later accounts ſpeak of 16 acres of wheat, 8 of barley, and 6 of other grain, as raiſed for the public, and in a very promiſing way.

It is ſuppoſed that metals of various kinds abound in the ſoil on which the town is built. A convict, who had formerly been uſed to work in the Staffordſhire lead mines, declared very poſitively, that the ground which they were now clearing contained a large quantity of that ore and copper is ſuppoſed to lie under ſome rocks which were blown up in ſinking a cellar for the public ſtock of ſpirituous liquors. It is the opinion of the governor himſelf, that there are ſeveral metals in the earth thereabout, and that the mines may hereafter be worked to great advantage; but at preſent he ſtrongly diſcharged any ſearches of this kind, very judiciouſly conſidering, that in their preſent ſituation, there was ſomething more neceſſary to be done. In ſome places where they dug for water, they found a ſubſtance which they concluded to be black lead. The kind of pigment, called by painters Spaniſh brown, is found in great abundance; and the white clay, with which the natives paint themſelves, is ſtill in greater plenty. The Abbe le Receveur was of opinion, that this clay, if cleared from the ſand, which might eaſily be ſeparated, would make excellent porcelain.

The climate at Sydney Cove is conſidered, on the whole, as equal to the fineſt in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are ſeldom any fogs. The ſoil, though in general light and rather ſandy in this part, is full as good as uſually is found ſo near the ſea ſide. All the plants and fruit trees brought from Braſil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the paſſage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful; both the European ſorts, and ſuch as are peculiar to New South Wales. In the governor's garden are excellent cauliflowers and melons, very fine of their kinds. The orange trees flouriſh, and the fig trees and vines are improving ſtill more rapidly. In a climate ſo favourable, the cultivation of the vine may doubtleſs be carried to any degree of perfection; and ſhould not other articles of commerce divert the attentions of the ſettlers from this point, the vines of New South Wales may, perhaps, hereafter be ſought with avidity, and become an indiſpenſible part of the luxuries of European tables.

The rankneſs of the graſs unfortunately proved fatal to all the ſheep purchaſed by governor Phillips, on his own and on the public account. Thoſe which individuals kept cloſe to their own tents were preſerved. Hogs and poultry increaſed very faſt; and black cattle will doubtleſs ſucceed as well.

The natives of New Holland, in general, ſeem to have no great averſion to the new ſettlers: the only acts of hoſtility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fiſhing grounds, which the New Hollanders juſtly ſuppoſed to belong to themſelves. They appear, however, to be in too ſavage a ſtate to be capable as yet of deriving any inſtruction from their new neighbours. They are ſo ignorant of agriculture, that it ſeems moſt probable that they do not even know the uſe of corn, and, therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, ſet fire to that which the coloniſts had raiſed for their own uſe. To avoid ſuch diſagreeable incidents therefore, a new ſettlement was begun on a ſmall uninhabited iſland, named *Norfolk Iſland*, lying in ſouth latitude 29°, and eaſt longitude 168° 10′ at the diſtance of 1200 miles from New Holland. This had been diſcovered by captain Cook, who gave it a very good character. The party ſent out to form this ſettlement conſiſted only of 26 perſons, who took poſſeſſion on the 14th of

February

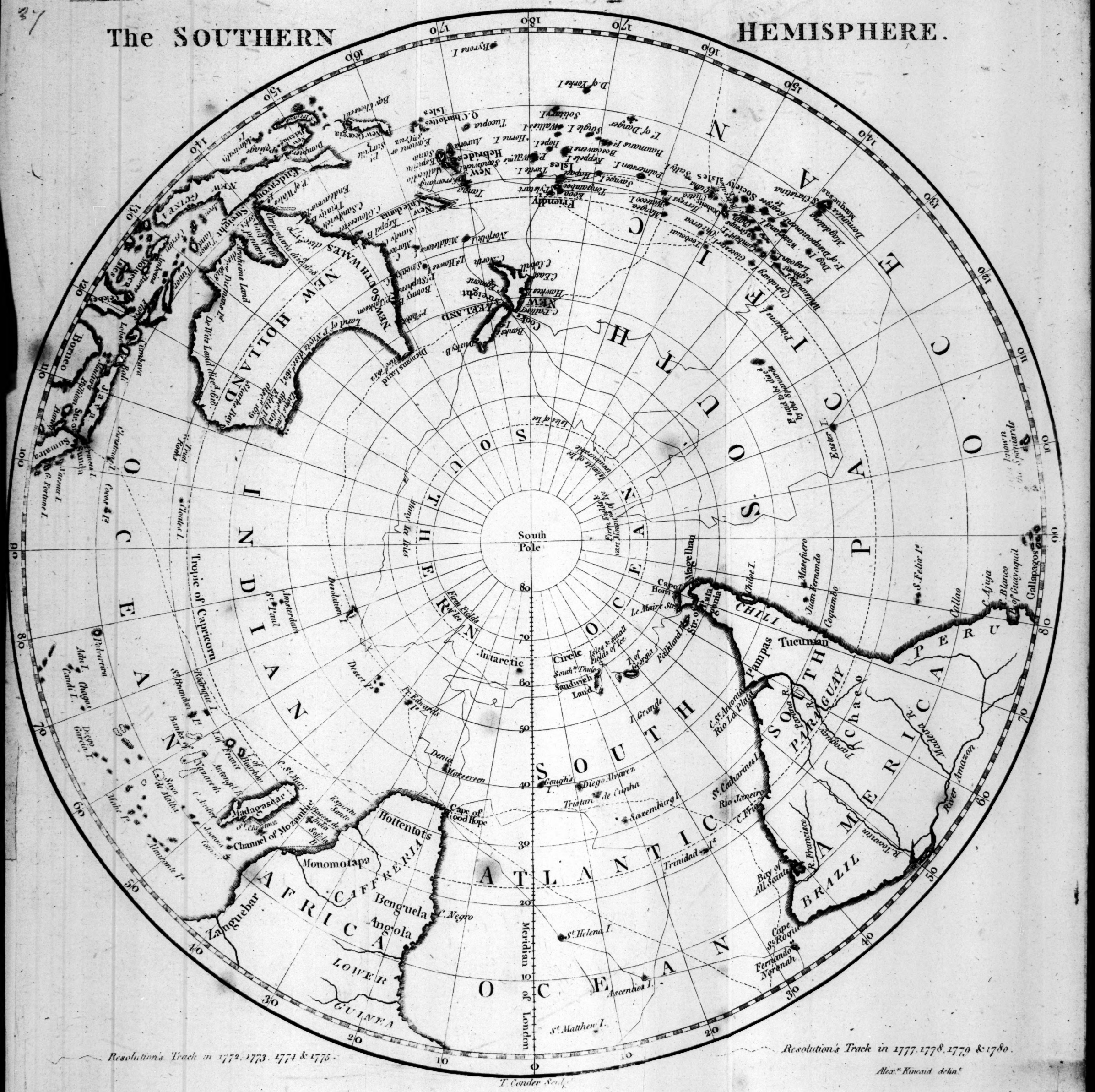
February 1788. They found it one entire wood, or rather reſembling a garden, on account of the fertility of its ſoil. The trees which cover it are moſtly pines, ſome of which meaſure 160, or even 180 feet in height; and there is alſo plenty of water, the iſland not only abounding with ſprings, but having a large rivulet dividing into ſeveral branches, ſome of which are ſufficient to turn a mill. Beſides the pine-trees already mentioned, there are others named *Fern-trees*, which grow to the height of 70 or 80 feet, and afford excellent food for ſheep. Here are alſo found the cabbage palm, the wild plantain, and many other uſeful vegetables. The flax plant is alſo a native of Norfolk iſland, which is of excellent uſe in making cordage and ſail-cloth, ſo that great attention is paid to the cultivation of it. This ſettlement was found ſo eligible, that, in October 1788, another party was ſent thither; ſo that the new colony, at the time the laſt advices were received, conſiſted of 44 men and 16 women; who, being ſupplied with 18 months proviſions, will probably be able to cultivate the ſoil in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to form a granary, which will put thoſe who are ſettled on New Holland entirely out of danger from their barbarous neighbours.

2. NEW ZEALAND.

THE knowledge we have of this country is entirely to be attributed to the labours of captain Cook, who ſpent no leſs than ſix months in exploring its coaſts. It conſiſts of two large iſlands; the moſt northerly of which is named by the natives *Eaheinomauwe*, and the moſt ſoutherly *Tovy*, or *Tavai Poenammoo*. The latter is barren and mountainous, but *Eaheinomauwe* much more fertile; ſo that it is very probable, that all kinds of European grains, as well as fruits and garden vegetables, might be reared here in great perfection. The flax plant, mentioned as a native of Norfolk Iſland, grows here in great perfection, and anſwers the purpoſes both of hemp and flax; excelling in this reſpect all others that have yet been diſcovered; and ſhould the ſettlement of New Zealand ever become an object, captain Cook has been at pains to point out the moſt proper place for that purpoſe. The foreſts are very extenſive, and contain moſt excellent timber for the purpoſes of ſhip building, or any other. In one place, named Mercury Bay, the oyſters were ſo plentiful, that a ſhip-load of them might eaſily have been collected; but there is not a great number of birds, nor have they any quadrupeds, excepting dogs and rats. There are likewiſe very few inſects, but in return for this ſcarcity of land animals, the fiſh are met with in the greateſt plenty. The natives are extremely fierce and ſavage, ſo that it was with the utmoſt difficulty that any intercourſe could be had with them. During the time of captain Cook's reſidence here, he had the moſt convincing evidence of their being canibals, and devouring the bodies of their ſlain enemies. Notwithſtanding their barbarous mode of living, however, they ſeemed to enjoy a moſt perfect ſtate of health, and in all the viſits made to their towns, not one was ever ſeen who had the ſmalleſt bodily complaint, not even the ſlighteſt eruption on the ſkin. Many of them ſeemed to be very old, from the loſs of their hair and teeth; but none were decrepid, and though inferior in ſtrength to the young men, they appeared not to be in the leaſt deficient

The NORTHERN HEMISPHERE.

The SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE.



deficient in chearfulneſs or vivacity. The only drink they have is water.

In one of the excurſions of captain Cook's people into the country, they had an opportunity of obſerving a very extraordinary natural curioſity. This was a rock perforated through its whole ſubſtance, in ſuch a manner, as to form a rude but ſtupendous arch, opening directly from the ſea. The aperture was 75 feet long, 27 broad, 45 in height, and, by its particular ſituation, afforded an exceedingly grand proſpect thro' it. The iſlands of New Zealand are ſituated between 34° 20' and 47° 25' ſouth latitude, and betwen 166° 50' and 180° eaſt longitude. The two iſlands are ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait named, from the diſcoverer, *Cook's Strait.*

3. The NEW HEBRIDES.

THESE lie to the northward of New Zealand, between 14° and 18° ſouth latitude, and between 167° and 169° eaſt longitude. They were firſt diſcovered by a Spaniſh navigator, named Quiros, in 1606, who gave them the name of Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo; but his diſcovery was ſo imperfect, that, till the voyage of captain Cook in 1769, they were ſuppoſed to be a part of the unknown continent called *Terra Auſtralis.* They are 18 in number; their names being Terra del Eſpiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St Bartholomew, the iſle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitſuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Erromango, Irronan, Anatom, and Tanna. They were viſited by M. Bougainville in 1768; but he did no more than aſcertain that they were unconnected, and formed no part of a continent. The moſt remarkable of them is Tanna, which is extremely fertile, but has a volcano which burns fiercely. The gentlemen on board captain Cook's ſhip wiſhed much to have come near to this volcano, in order to explore its phenomena more certainly; but the natives could not by any means be prevailed upon to let them paſs through their country.

4. NEW CALEDONIA.

THIS lies to the ſouthward of the New Hebrides; and, next to New Holland and New Zealand, is the moſt conſiderable of all thoſe newly diſcovered. It extends from 19° 00' to 22° 30' ſouth latitude; and from 163° 37' to 167° 14' eaſt longitude; its length from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt being about 240 miles; but the breadth not more than 30. The internal parts are very rocky and barren; though ſome fertile ſpots, which the natives had cultivated, appeared to great advantage. It abounds with rivulets, and the whole country reſembles greatly New Holland in its aſpect. It was conjectured by captain Cook, that it might contain valuable minerals. A conſiderable number of plants, unknown before to botaniſts, were met with in this country; and it produces likewiſe a vaſt variety of birds, many of which had alſo not been deſcribed before, particularly a curious ſpecies of parrot. The inhabitants appeared inoffenſive and harmleſs, but were very well armed with clubs, ſpears, darts, and ſlings. Many of them had monſtrous thick legs and arms, which ſeemed to be owing to a kind of leproſy. They did not

not complain of any pain in these swellings, nor did they seem to be attended with much inconvenience.

5. QUEEN CHARLOTTE's ISLANDS

WERE discovered in 1767 by captain Carteret, but are not much known. They lie to the northward of the New Hebrides, and are inhabited by a fierce and warlike people, who killed four of captain Carteret's men. There were seven of them counted at that time, but they are supposed to be more numerous. An island was also discovered by captain Wallis the same year, to which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's Island. It is fertile and well watered.

6. NEW IRELAND

LIES considerably to the north-westward of Queen Charlotte's islands, extending in length about 270 miles, but is in general very narrow. It is very fertile, and abounds with birds. A cluster of islands were discovered to the north-west of New Ireland, supposed to consist of 20 or 30, one of which, being of considerable extent, has obtained the name of New Hanover; but the rest are classed under the general title of Admiralty Islands.

7. NEW GUINEA

IS a long and narrow island to the north of New Holland, of which it was formerly supposed to be a part; but captain Cook discovered the strait, which he named Endeavour Straits. The land on the sea coast is low, but covered with an excessively luxuriant vegetation. In the internal parts it is hilly. When captain Cook landed here, three Indians rushed out of a thicket with an hideous shout, and showed such an hostile disposition, that he thought proper to re-embark. As they rowed along the shore, the Indians assembled in considerable numbers, shouting as before; and during the time of their making this hideous noise, some of them threw something out of their hands, which burnt exactly like gun powder, but without any report. Those who did so, had a short piece of stick, probably a hollow cane, which they swung sidewise from them, on which the fire and smoke immediately issued, exactly resembling the discharge of a musket, and of equally short duration. No conjecture could be formed concerning the nature or use of these fires.

8. NEW BRITAIN.

THIS is still farther north than New Guinea; lying in 5° south latitude, and 150° 00′ east longitude. It was discovered by captain Dampier to be an island separated by a narrow strait from New Guinea, which in our map of the southern hemisphere is named Dampier's Passage. It is of no great extent, but is very fertile. A great numbe

of islands lie in the neighbourhood, almost all of which abound with cocoa-nuts, plantains, &c.

9. The FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE were visited by captain Tasman in 1743, and gave names to the most remarkable; but the whole of them were explored with great care by captain Cook, who found them to be more than 20 in number. This celebrated navigator gave them the name of *Friendly Islands*, on account of the hospitable behaviour of the inhabitants to strangers, and the friendship and harmony which seemed to subsist among themselves. They are very industrious, and cultivate the ground with great skill and success. The islands are all almost extremely flat and low, excepting one named *Eooa*, the land of which rises by a gentle ascent to a considerable height, affording a most delightful prospect, having groves of trees interspersed at irregular distances. The maritime parts are entirely covered with fruit trees and others, among which are the habitations of the natives.

10. The SOCIETY ISLANDS.

THESE were discovered by captain Cook in the year 1769, and are six in number, viz. Ulietea, or Raietea, Otaha, Bolabola, Huaheine, Tubai, and Maunea. They are all extremely fertile. Ulietea is about 21 leagues round, producing abundance of cocoa-nuts, plantains, and other tropical fruits, though it seems to be inferior in fertility to Huaheine. It is divided from the island of Otaha by a strait, scarce two miles broad. Otaha has two good harbours, and its produce is much the same with that already mentioned. The people of Bolabola are extremely martial, and often grievously harass the people of the other islands. This island is surrounded by a reef of rocks; and captain Cook remarks that most of those in the Pacific Ocean are in the same situation. Thus they are defended from the vast waves of the ocean which surrounds them, and by which they would otherwise probably be soon swallowed up.

11. OTAHEITE,

ONE of the most celebrated of the South Sea Islands, is situated in 17° 46' south latitude, and 193° 13' west longitude. It was discovered by captain Wallis in 1767, and has since been repeatedly visited by captain Cook and other navigators. It is divided into two kingdoms, united together by a very narrow neck of land; both together making up an extent of country about 40 leagues in circumference. Towards the sea, the land is quite level, but begins to rise about three miles inland. The hills are lofty, and terminate in peaks, from whence streams descend with great impetuosity. There are great appearances of volcanic fire over the whole island, the stones appearing every where burnt, even without the exception of a single one. Hence it has been supposed, that all the South Sea Islands are the remains of a continent formerly existing in that vast ocean, but which has been destroyed by some grievous convulsion of nature. It is remarked, that the water does not gradually become more shallow as we approach the shore, but is

immeaſurably deep cloſe to the ſhore. Some traces of iron have been met with in various parts of the iſland, but none of any more precious metal. The vaſt quantity of water with which the South Sea Iſlands are ſurrounded, ſo much diminiſhes and regulates the heat, that even under the equator it is very moderate. In Otaheite fleſh meat will keep two days, and fiſh one. "The climate, ſays M. Bougainville, is ſo healthy, that, notwithſtanding the hard labour of the ſhips companies when on ſhore; though the men were continually in the water, and expoſed to the meridian ſun, though they ſlept on the bare ſoil, and in the open air, none of them fell ſick; thoſe who were afflicted with the ſcurvy, and ſent on ſhore, regained their ſtrength, although they were obliged to aſſiſt in the erecting of a fort, and had ſcarce one uninterrupted night, yet they were ſo far recovered in the ſhort time they ſtaid there, that they were afterwards perfectly cured on board." The ſoil of Otaheite is a black fat earth, prodigiouſly fertile, ſo that with the ſlighteſt culture imaginable, it produces all kinds of valuable fruits, which, in the tropical countries, are the only food of the inhabitants. They have a particular kind of tree, the fruit of which reſembling a large nut, has the property of intoxicating fiſh, ſo that they may thus be caught in great numbers, without being in the leaſt noxious, or ill taſted. They have great numbers of curious and beautiful birds, but no quadrupeds, excepting hogs, dogs, and rats. Some authors inform us, that they have no troubleſome nor venemous inſects; but M. Bougainville ſays, that there are ſea ſnakes on the coaſt, whoſe bite is mortal. The inhabitants are of a pale brown complexion, but in general well made, ſtrong, and ſo free from perſonal defects, that captain Cook's people ſaw only one cripple among them, and he, to appearance, had been maimed by a fall. Both ſexes have a cuſtom of ſtaining their bodies in a certain manner, called *Tattowing*. The operation is performed by ſtriking the teeth of an inſtrument ſomewhat like a comb, quite thro' the ſkin; then rubbing into the punctures a kind of paſte made of ſoot and oil, which leaves an indelible ſtain. It is attended with great pain, as Mr Banks had an opportunity of obſerving. Their common drink is water, or the milk of the cocoa nut. In general they ſhewed an averſion to ſpirituous liquors; or if any of them happened to drink a quantity ſufficient to intoxicate them, they obſtinately refuſed to taſte any thing likely to produce this effect again. They are, however, very fond of an inebriating liquor, made after their own manner, and which cannot fail but to be diſguſting to an European. It is prepared from the root of a plant named *Ava*, which ſeveral people chew till it is ſoft and pulpy; after which they ſpit it into a veſſel, till they have as much as they think convenient to make. Water is then added in ſufficient quantity, and the liquor being ſtrained, becomes fit for immediate uſe.

12. The MARQUESAS ISLANDS

ARE five in number, viz. La Magdelena, St Pedro, La Dominica, Santa Chriſtina, and Hood iſland. They are in general full of mountains and barren rocks; though there are many fertile ſpots, which are well cultivated, and very populous. According to the accounts of captain Cook, the inhabitants of theſe iſlands are, without exception,

ception, the fineſt race of people in the South Sea; and are remarkably active, ſtrong, and well limbed. In hot weather they make uſe of fans to cool themſelves, many of which were purchaſed by captain Cook's people. They were made of a kind of tough bark, or graſs, curiouſly plaited, and frequently whitened with ſhell-lime. Some had the large feathered leaves of a kind of palm, which anſwered the purpoſe of an umbrella.

13. EASTER ISLAND,

IS very different from thoſe hitherto deſcribed; being extremely barren, and almoſt incapable of affording ſubſiſtence to the few inhabitants who live upon it. It is only about ten or twelve leagues in circumference, but has ſuch high hills, that they may be ſeen at the diſtance of 30 miles. The whole country has evident marks, not only of a volcanic origin, but of having been lately ruined by an eruption. When captain Cook's people landed, they found the ground all covered with ſtones, which appeared to have been melted in the fire, or to have become black and porous by being ſubjected to its action; and the farther they advanced, the worſe the country ſeemed to be, until at laſt they arrived at a bare rock of lava, on which was neither ſoil nor graſs. In ſome places, however, there were cultivated ſpots, which produced potatoes of a gold colour, and as ſweet as carrots, plantains, and ſugar-canes. The greateſt curioſity in the iſland was a number of gigantic ſtatutes; of which, however, few remained entire. Theſe were met with only in the ſea coaſt; and on the eaſt ſide of the iſland were three platforms of ſtone, each of which had ſupported four of theſe ſtatues; but they were all fallen down from two of them, and one from the third. One which had fallen down meaſured 15 feet in height, and ſix in breadth. Others were found 27 feet high; and one ſtill larger, ſo that the ſhade of it was ſufficient to cover 30 perſons from the rays of the ſun. All of them have cylindric ſtones of great magnitude upon their head, and the workmanſhip though rude, is not bad. They could not obtain any intelligence of what they were deſigned to repreſent, or by whom they were formed. There ſeemed to be many more men than women upon the iſland; though it was afterwards conjectured that they might have concealed them from the ſight of ſtrangers. The few they had an opportunity of ſeeing were exceſſively laſcivious. This iſland is ſituated in 27° 5′ ſouth latitude, and 110° 00′ weſt longitude.

14. The SANDWICH ISLES.

THESE were the laſt diſcovery of the celebrated captain Cook, and are memorable for being the ſcene of his death, which happened in a very unexpected and tragical manner. They are eleven in number, and were named the Sandwich iſlands, in honour of Sandwich who had been his patron. Their names are O-why-hee, Mowee, Ranai, or Oranai, Morotinnia, or Morokinnee, Kahowrowee, or Tahoorowa, Morotvi, or Morokoi, Woahoo, or Oahoo, Atowi, Atovi, or Towi, ſometimes named Kowi, Neeheehow, or Oneeheow, Oreehoua, or Reehoua, and

Tahoora; all of which are inhabited, excepting Morotinnia and Tahoora. Another was also mentioned by the natives lying to the west southwest of Tahoora; but it is also uninhabited, and visited only for the purpose of catching fish and sea-fowl. O-why-hee, the most easterly of them, is also the most considerable. It is of a triangular figure, the sides being nearly equal. The northern point is in 20° 17′ north latitude, east longitude 204° 2′; the eastern in 19° 34′ north latitude, east longitude 205° 1′, and the southern extremity in 18° 54′ north latitude, east longitude 204° 15′. The greatest length of this island from north to south is about 28¾ leagues, and its breadth 24. It has some exceedingly high mountains, the tops of which are always covered with snow; one of which is supposed to be upwards of 18,000 feet in height, and another more than 16,000. This island appears also to have suffered severely by volcanic fire, some parts of its coast being mostly covered with cinders and pumice stones; notwithstanding which, it is very well peopled, as the inhabitants live much by fishing, and there are many rich spots which produce excellent crops.

Mowee, the next in magnitude to O-why-hee, is about 140 geographical miles in circumference, and, like it, is filled with high mountains, many of which rise almost perpendicularly, with tops of a reddish colour and almost entirely bare. The finest island in the whole group, however, is Woahoo; where nothing can exceed the beauty of its verdant hills and rich cultivated vallies. All the other islands are likewise fertile, and the inhabitants well skilled in agriculture; but those of Atooi were thought to be superior to the rest in the management of their plantations. The climate seems to be moist, but free from those dreadful storms to which the West India Islands are subject.

15. The NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO, or Islands between ASIA and AMERICA, where the Continents begin to approach each other.

THESE are very numerous, and were mostly discovered by the Russians. They are divided by Mr Muller into four groups, viz. 1. The Aleutian isles, consisting of five islands; 2. Khao, comprehending eight; 3. Negho, comprehending 16; and 4. Kavalang, containing also 16. Some of them are only visited occasionally for the purposes of fishing, or catching sea-fowl; but others are well peopled, though by a very savage race of people, as they eat their meat, both fish and flesh, without any dressing whatever. They are extremely sensible of injuries, and the least vexation or disappointment will make them put an end to their own lives. The climate in general is cold and moist, notwithstanding which they scarce wear any clothes.

16. Discoveries on the Western Coast of AMERICA, and the North-Eastern extremity of ASIA.

THE discovery of the strait which separates Asia from America was made by a Russian navigator, named captain Beering, but more particularly explored by captain Cook in his last voyage. After having visited the Sandwich islands once, he proceeded for the western coast

Fig. 1.

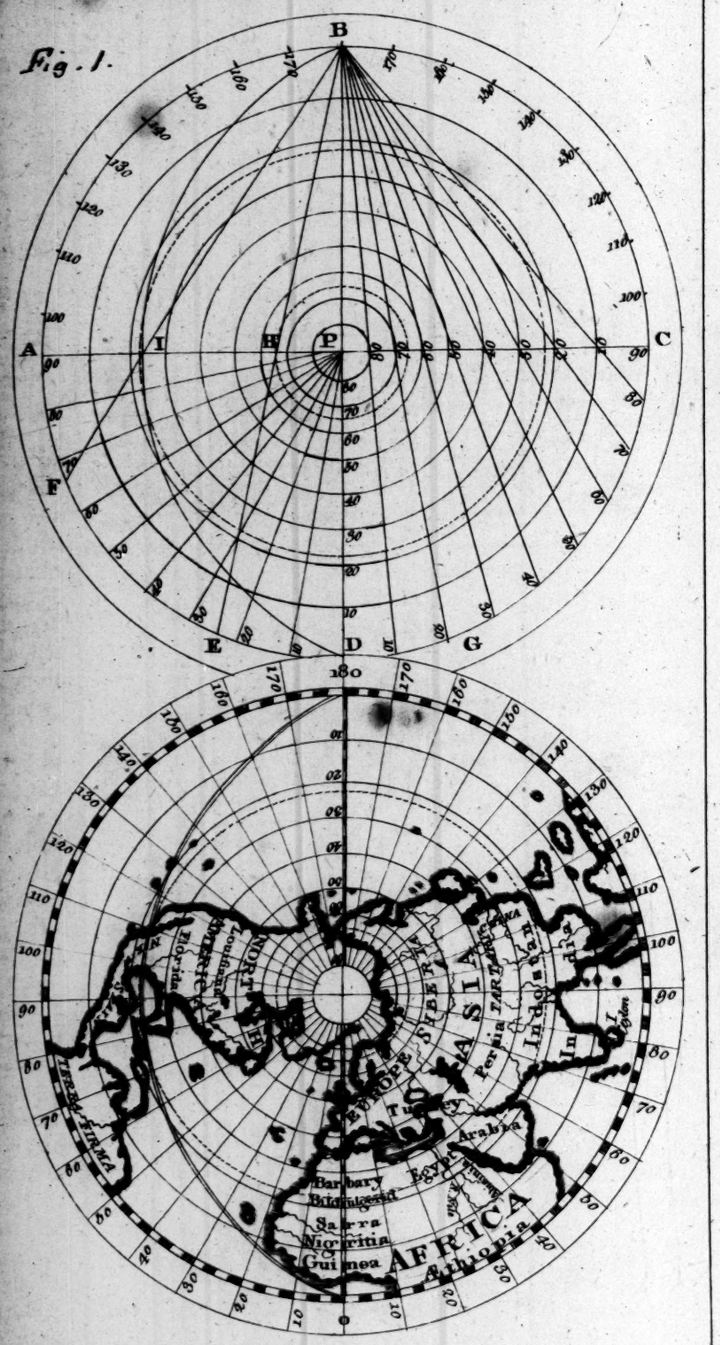
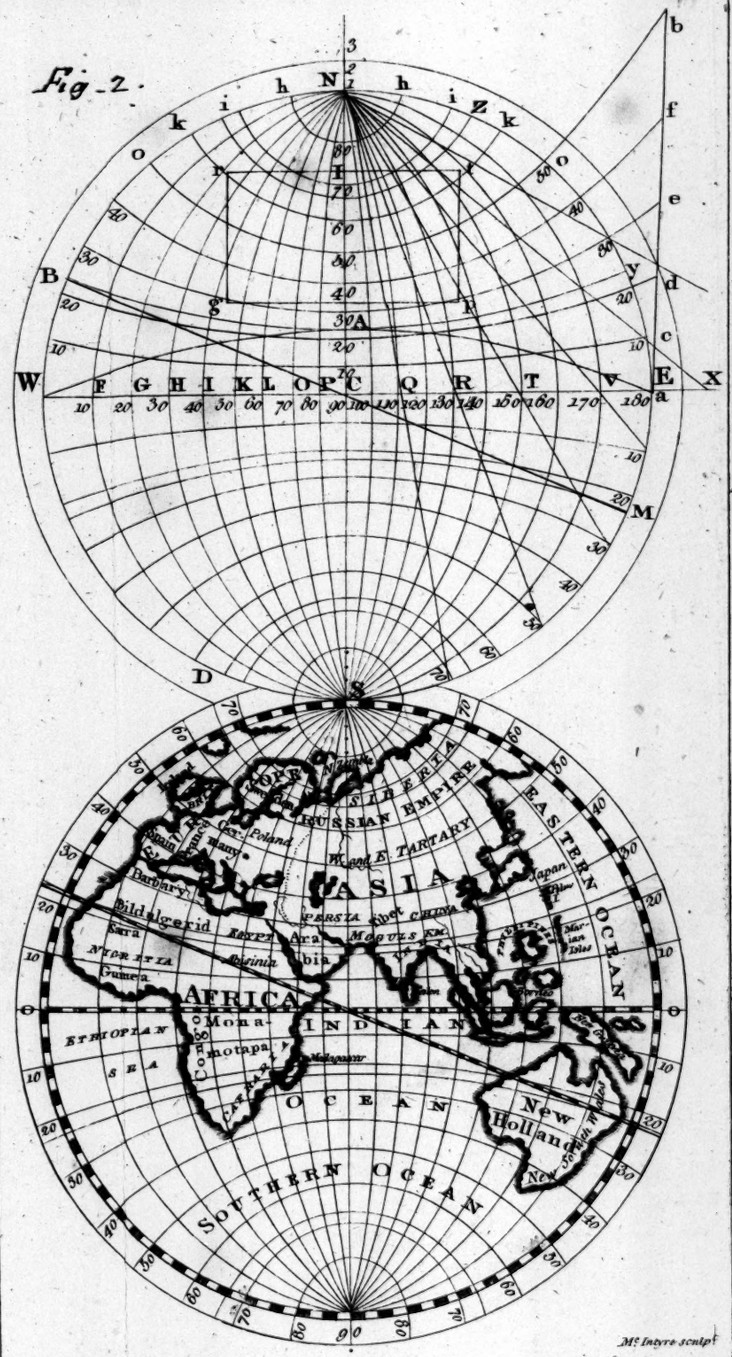
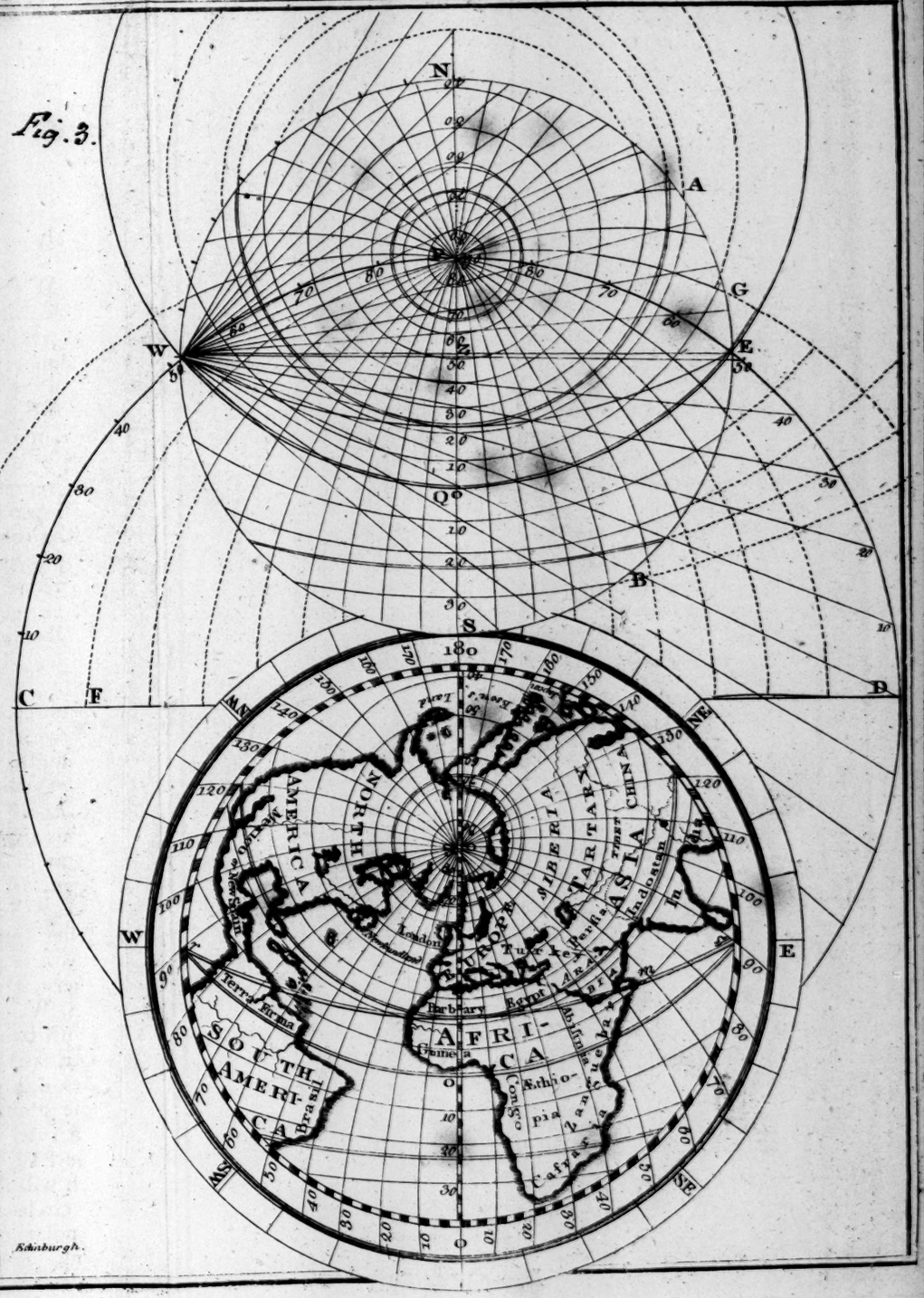


Fig. 2.



Mr Intyre sculpt

Fig. 3.



Edinburgh.

of America, along which he ſailed to its moſt weſterly extremity, where it approaches neareſt to the Aſiatic continent. At New Albion, where he firſt fell in with the American continent, the country was full of high mountains, the tops of which are covered with ſnow; but the vallies between them is extremely fertile, and covered with beautiful verdure. The place where he firſt landed was in north latitude 44° 33′, eaſt longitude 235° 20′; but he made a longer ſtay at Nootka Sound, in north latitude 49° 33′; eaſt longitude 233° 12′. Here he found the climate much milder than on the eaſtern coaſt; the thermometer in the month of February riſing frequently to 78° in the daytime, and never falling below 42° even in the night. As at ſome times he was obliged to keep at a conſiderable diſtance from the land, however, there were thus ſeveral conſiderable gaps left undiſcovered, particularly between the latitudes 50° and 55°. In the courſe of his voyage northward, he fell in with a very large river; up which he ſailed 210 miles, as high as north latitude 61° 30′; and to which the name of *Cook's River* * has ſince been given. The inhabitants all along the weſtern coaſt of America were found to be acquainted with metals, and had glaſs beads; which ſhewed a communication with the European ſettlements. About Cook's River they had plenty of furs; and it ſeemed probable that a valuable trade might be carried on from thence. As he approached Beering's Strait, the coaſt of America became more deſolate and barren, producing nothing but a little graſs on the lower grounds. The moſt weſterly point of America is ſituated in north latitude 65° 46′; eaſt longitude 193° 00′; and is only 39 miles diſtant from the eaſtern coaſt of Siberia. Having ſailed through the ſtrait, he perceived the two continents ſeparating from each other to a greater diſtance; but he could proceed no farther than north latitude 70° 41′, on account of the ice. Another attempt was made by captain Clerke, after the death of captain Cook, but with no better ſucceſs; ſo that the moſt northerly coaſts of Aſia and America remain as yet unexplored.

17. The Diſcovery of an INLAND SEA, containing a great number of Iſlands in NORTH AMERICA.

FROM the obſervations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the weſtern part of America about the latitude of 64° north, it appeared that a ſtrong ſimilarity ſubſiſted between them and the Eſquimaux on the eaſt coaſt. Hence it was even then conjectured that a communication by ſea exiſted betwixt the eaſt and weſt ſides of that continent.

In this part of America, however, a moſt ſurpriſing diſcovery has lately been made, which, when properly authenticated, cannot fail to be of the utmoſt utility, not only to ſcience in general, but to the commercial and political intereſts of mankind; not to ſay that it will undoubtedly contribute, by giving an opportunity for the advancement of civilization to their moral intereſts alſo. This, though not made by captain Cook himſelf, took place in conſequence of his diſcoveries on the northweſt continent of America. In theſe parts he found that ſuch quantities of valuable furs might be purchaſed from the inhabitants as promiſed to be a very valuable article of commerce, provided any regular connection

* See Map of Beerings Straits.

could

could be eſtabliſhed betwixt that part of the world and the Britiſh ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies. This taſk was quickly undertaken by ſome ſpirited adventurers, who unluckily have found themſelves oppoſed both by *friends* and *foes*, viz. the Eaſt India Company and the Spaniards; the former pretending that they had no right to diſpoſe of furs in the Eaſt Indies, and the latter, that they had none to bring them from the weſtern coaſt of America. By one Mr Etches, who fitted out ſhips for this purpoſe, it was diſcovered, that all the weſtern coaſt of America, from the latitude of 48° to 57° north was no continued tract of land, but a chain of iſlands which had never been explored, and that theſe concealed the entrance to a vaſt inland ſea like the Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which ſeems likewiſe to be full of iſlands. * Among theſe Mr Etches's ſhip, the Princeſs Royal, penetrated ſeveral hundred leagues in a north-eaſt direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudſon's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the Archipelago juſt mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new Mediterranean Sea. From what they really did diſcover, however, it is probable that there may this way be a communication with Hudſon's Bay, in which caſe the north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies will be found through ſeas much more navigable than thoſe in which it has hitherto been attempted. The iſlands which they explored were all inhabited by tribes of Indians, who appeared very friendly and well diſpoſed to carry on a commerce. Of theſe iſlands upwards of 50 were viſited, and we are informed, that ſome ſhips are now fitting out at one of the ports of England for the ſame place; ſo that farther diſcoveries may ſoon be expected.

* In our Map of North America, an iſland is laid down at the entrance of the river of the weſt, north latitude 45°, and weſt longitude 130°, the place where this diſcovery is ſaid to have been made.

APPENDIX,

APPENDIX,

SHEWING THE METHOD AND CONSTRUCTION OF MAPS.

THOUGH the figure and ſituation of the different parts of the earth cannot be repreſented with perfect exactneſs on any other thing than a globe, yet, in ſeveral reſpects, a map has advantages ſufficient to counterbalance this defect; and therefore maps are much more commonly to be met with than globes. The art of map-making depends entirely upon the rules of perſpective; the projection of the ſphere, which is its foundation, being no other than the delineation of the various circles of the ſphere deſcribed in the introduction to this work, upon a piece of plain paper, according to the rules of that art. Hence there are various kinds of maps, ſome in which the meridians are ſtraight lines, and the parallels of latitude are circular; in others the parallels of latitude are ſtraight lines, and the meridians circular, or elliptical. Theſe depend on the different ſituations in which the eye is ſuppoſed to behold the globe of earth, in conſequence of which the various countries will be differently repreſented, and apparently aſſume various ſhapes.

The projections of the ſphere are generally diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, the *ſtereographic* and *orthographic*. In the former the eye is ſuppoſed to be placed in the pole of ſome great circle of the earth, and the countries are delineated as they would then appear if the globe itſelf were tranſparent, and we could in that ſtate trace the diſtinctions betwixt land and water. In the orthographic projection the eye is ſuppoſed not to be in the pole, but in the axis of a great circle produced to an infinite length; and thus the convexity entirely diſappearing, ſome of the circles of the ſphere muſt always be projected into right lines. This method, however, is attended with the inconvenience of diſtorting the ſhape of ſome parts of the earth in ſuch a manner, and confining them within ſuch a narrow compaſs that they can neither be juſtly nor diſtinctly repreſented; and hence it is ſeldom or never uſed in the making of maps.

To render a map complete, it ought to repreſent the parts of the earth exactly of their natural ſhape. We ought alſo to be enabled readily to find the longitudes and latitudes, diſtances, bearings, &c. of the different places marked on the map; in which caſe it would fully anſwer the purpoſes of a globe, at leaſt as far as it extended. No contrivance, however, has yet been fallen upon by which theſe purpoſes can be perfectly

fectly anſwered; though ſome projections are found to anſwer them much better than others. The following are accounted the moſt proper: 1. The *Equatoreal*, commonly called the *Polar Projection*. By this the earth is divided into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, and the countries they contain are delineated upon the plane of the equator, which is ſuppoſed to divide the earth exactly in the middle betwixt the two poles. In the ſtereographic projection the pole is in the middle, the meridians are repreſented by ſtraight lines diverging from the centre, and the parallels of latitude by circles cutting them at right angles, whoſe centre is the pole, and whoſe diſtance from each other is gradually augmented as we approach the equator.

To conſtruct a map of this kind, drawing a circle ABCD, (Fig. 1) of the magnitude you intend one hemiſphere to be. Divide this into its degrees, which number at every ten, to repreſent the degrees of longitude, and betwixt theſe and P the centre, draw ſtraight lines, to repreſent the meridians. Then, to find the diſtances at which the parallels of latitude ought to be drawn, lay a ruler betwixt the point B, and every tenth degree, or every ſingle degree of the quadrant CD, marking the points at which it interſects the line PC. Through theſe points, on the centre P, draw circles at the diſtances 80, 70, 60, &c. as repreſented in the figure, and which will be the parallels of latitude for every ten degrees. For the polar circles and tropics, ſet off 23° 30′ on the equator from D to E, and likewiſe from A to F; then, through the points H and I, where the lines BE and BF interſect AC, deſcribe dotted circles, to diſtinguiſh them from other parallels. The ſemicircle of the ecliptic may be deſcribed by finding the centre of a circle which will paſs through the three points B, I, and D, an arch of which will repreſent the whole ſemicircle according to this projection.

This method has the advantage of ſhewing the longitudes and latitudes of places very exactly and readily. It ſhews alſo, with great facility, the bearings of ſuch as lie either directly eaſt, weſt, ſouth, or north from each other; but the intermediate points cannot always be found. It alſo repreſents the places near the equator larger, and thoſe near the poles ſmaller in dimenſions than they ought to be; but this diſtortion is an inconvenience to which every map is ſubject in ſome way or other.

2. *The Sterographic* projection on the *plane of the meridian*. In this the equator and one of the meridians become ſtraight lines; the others being all curves, or arches of circles of larger or ſmaller dimenſions. Only ſemicircles of latitude, however, are here ſhewn, becauſe the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres, not the northern and ſouthern, are repreſented. For its conſtruction, deſcribe the circle N, E, S, W, (Fig. 2.) repreſenting the firſt meridian, croſs it at the centre C, with two diameters cutting each other at right angles. The line WCE will then repreſent the equator, NCE will be the meridian 90 degrees diſtant from the firſt, the extremities of which denote the poles of the globe. Having then divided the large circle into degrees, lay a ruler betwixt the polar point N, and each degree of the quadrants SW or SE, marking the places where it interſects the equator, which will thus alſo be divided into its degrees. Find then the centers of circles paſſing through every tenth diviſion on the equator, and the polar points N and S arches of theſe circles will repreſent the meridians, as is ſhewn in the figure; and in the ſame manner we may find the centres of the circles of latitude. The radii by which theſe circles are drawn, are

found to be the tangents of the complements of latitude; thus the parallel of 10 degrees has for its radius the tangent of 80; that of 20, the tangent of 70, &c. Large maps of this kind are therefore difficult to make, on account of the great length of these tangents. If the sphere be thus projected on the meridian called the Solsticial Colure, the ecliptic will be a straight line B M, touching the two extremities of the parallels of $23\frac{1}{2}$ N. and S. latitude, which represent the tropics of Cancer and Capricorn. If the projection is on the equinoctial colure, the ecliptic then becomes a curve, and may be drawn by finding the centre of a circle which will pass through the three points W, A, and E; an arch of which will be a representation of it.

The great conveniency of this kind of maps is, that they represent on one hemisphere the continent of Europe, Asia, and Africa completely; while America occupies the other. On this account it is most commonly in use for maps of the whole world; but it has a very considerable disadvantage, in not only distorting the places near the middle of the map, but likewise, that neither the longitudes, latitudes, distances, nor bearings of places can be found upon it exactly without great trouble.

3. *The horizontal projection of the globe* shews the circles of the sphere delineated upon the horizon of any particular place, and consequently admits of an infinite variety. In this the place on whose horizon the projection is made must always be the centre of the large circle; the pole being a point within the circumference, and nearer or farther from the centre according to the latitude of the place on whose horizon we choose to make the projection: the meridians and parallels of latitude are all arches of circles. This method was in use among the ancient Jews, who supposed Jerusalem to be the exact middle of the earth; and it is likewise used by the Chinese, who are influenced by a like vain opinion. It is much more difficult than any of the former projections; however the method of doing it may be understood from the following example.

Suppose it is required to project the sphere on the horizon of the city of London, in latitude 51° 30′ north. First on the centre Z, Fig. 3. representing London, draw the circle NESW, divide it into quarters and degrees as in other projections. NS will then be the first meridian, and WE the prime vertical, or azimuth of east and west. From N to A, set off 51° 30′ the latitude of London; then laying a ruler from W to A, the point of intersection, P will represent the position of the North Pole on this projection. From A to B, set off 90° (the distance betwixt the pole and the equator) and the point Q, where the line WB cuts the diameter NS, will shew the point of intersection of the equator with the meridian of London. Lay a ruler betwixt the point W, and every degree of the semicircle NAEBS; and the points of intersection on the diameter NS will be those of the parallels of latitude with the meridian of London. In order to delineate these easily, continue the diameter NS, and between the point W and the degrees of the quadrant NW, lay a ruler, marking the intersections on the extended diameter, and these will shew the opposite points of those circles of latitude which do not fall within the horizon; by bisecting the line betwixt these two points therefore we have the centre of each parallel. Here it must be observed, that the latitude cannot be counted on the outer circle of the map, as in the projection on the meridian, but on the straight line NS. The intersections of the ruler, therefore, when laid betwixt the divisions of the outer circle, and the divisions of the large circle on each side the

pole, mark the extremities of the parallels of latitude.—Thus, counting 10 degrees from A towards N on the large circle, and as many on the ſame from A towards S, the interſections of the ruler laid betwixt W and theſe points, with the line NS, mark out the extreme points of the diameter of the parallel of 80 degrees; by ſetting off 20 degrees on each ſide, and laying the ruler as before, its interſections with NS mark out the extremities of the parallel of 70 degrees, and ſo on.

To draw the meridians, deſcribe a circle through the three points W, P, and E, one half of which is ſhewn by the ſemicircle CPD. Divide this into its degrees, and draw lines for each degree, or 10th degree from P. Laſtly, deſcribe circles from the centres found in the line CD, continued at both ends, through the diviſion in the diameter WE, and the poles in the manner already deſcribed for the projection on the equinoctial or ſolſtitial colures.

This projection has the advantage of ſhewing readily the bearings and diſtances of places from the centre, but the particular degrees of longitude and latitude cannot be known without difficulty.

Thus far we have deſcribed the conſtruction of general maps, or thoſe which are deſigned to exhibit a repreſentation of the whole or one half of the world. Thoſe which repreſent particular countries may be ſuppoſed only pieces taken out of a large projection; but as theſe would require inſtruments of vaſt ſize to draw the circles of longitude and latitude, we ſhall here at once ſhew an eaſy and exact method of drawing a particular map of any ſize, with the common compaſſes. Thus, ſuppoſe it is required to draw a map of ſome part of the earth including ſix degrees, as from the 39th to the 45th parallel of latitude, draw the line EF, and in the middle raiſe the perpendicular DC. Divide this perpendicular into ſix equal parts, repreſenting the degrees of latitude, and through C draw a line parallel to EF. Divide a degree into ten, or if large enough, into 60 equal parts; and, in the table for decreaſing longitudes, find the contents of a degree of longitude in the latitude of 39°, viz. 46,62 miles. From the degree ſo divided, take the parts 46,62, divide the diſtance, and ſet one half from D to E, and the other from D to F. Find then the extent of a degree of longitude in the latitude of 45°, viz. 42,43 miles; and taking that diſtance from the ſcale of the degree, divide it as before, laying one half from C to I, and the other from C to K. Draw ſtraight lines betwixt the points I and E, and K and F; divide them into ſix equal parts, and through theſe draw parallel lines, and thus IKEF is a projection for one degree of longitude, and ſix of latitude.

The projection of the whole map is only a repetition of this operation; we have therefore only to take, with a pair of compaſſes, the diſtance from E to K, or from F to I: then ſetting one foot in E, and then in F, deſcribe the arches L and M; and in like manner ſet one foot firſt in I, and then in K, and with the ſame extent draw the arches N and O. Then take the diſtance between E and F, and ſet from E to N, and from F to O. Set likewiſe the diſtance between I and K from I to L, and from K to M. Draw lines between L and N, and M and O; divide them into degrees and draw parallels from theſe points to their correſponding points in the meridians IE and KF. After the ſame manner may meridians and parallels be drawn to as many degrees of longitude as your map contains. If the map be very large, ſo that the compaſſes cannot take in the whole extent of the diagonal IF or EK, we may do it at twice, by taking the diagonals GF, or EH, and tranſferring them

Fig. 5.

METHOD of projecting Mercator's CHART.

Fig. 4.

them as already directed; after which, we may do the ſame with the other half.

This projection is by far the moſt exact of all thoſe by which particular maps can be laid down; for as all the diagonals formed by the meridians and parallels of latitude are of an equal ſize, the number of the former cauſes no defect in the repreſentation as in other projections; and conſequently the compaſſes extended between any two places and applied to the ſcale, gives the diſtance without any more trouble. This kind of projection has alſo the advantage of all others, excepting *Wright's*, falſely called *Mercator's*, which in them is obſtructed by the inequality of the diagonals. The bearing is moſt readily found by a protracter, or compaſs drawn on paper; to do which, place the centre of either upon one of the places, and the north and ſouth points parallel to its meridian; then, drawing a thread from one to the other, mark the point where it cuts the protractor or compaſs, which gives the bearing required. The ſcale for ſhewing the diſtances muſt be graduated upon one of the meridians, and not on the outline of the map, as is erroneouſly done in the common projections.

The laſt method of drawing maps of the different parts of the world which we ſhall here take notice of, is that called Wright's, or Mercator's chart. Both theſe were expert mathematicians; but Wright ſeems to have been the real inventor of this projection. The truth, however, was, that having ſpoken too freely of his method to Mercator, the latter found means to paſs himſelf upon the world as the inventor, by which means he has perpetuated his name to poſterity, while that of Wright is much leſs known. The foundation of the whole is, that, ſuppoſing a globe, with the uſual delienations upon it, were placed within a concave cylinder, and blown up until every part touched the ſides of the latter, each parallel of latitude would be of the ſame dimenſion with the equator, the meridians would be parallel lines, and the rhumbs and all other circles of the globe would be converted into ſtraight lines, by which means the true diſtance and bearing of places might be found with the greateſt facility. This, he juſtly conceived, would be of the utmoſt ſervice at ſea, where the common projections could be of no ſervice, on account of the difficulty of finding either diſtance or bearing. The readieſt method of conſtructing it is by the ſector, as follows:

Having drawn any number of parallel lines, the diſtance between which you conceive to be ten degrees of longitude, take this diſtance with your compaſſes, and with it rectify the firſt points of the ſecants upon your ſector. Then take the diſtance between ten degrees of the ſecants, and ſet it off from A and B on the meridians AC and BD for the firſt ten degrees of latitude, and draw the parallel betwixt the two points. The ſector then remaining in the ſame poſition, take in your compaſſes the diſtance between the 20th degrees of ſecants, and ſet it off from 10 degrees already marked on the lines AC and BD. Thus you have 20 degrees of latitude on the chart; and from theſe 20, ſetting off the ſecant of 30, you may draw the parallel of 30 degrees, and ſo on for the reſt. But if you would draw parallels at every degree of latitude, and reſtrict your chart to a ſmall portion of the earth's ſurface, ſuppoſe from the 48th to the 53d degree of latitude, then take within your compaſſes the ſpace of a ſingle degree of longitude, and rectify the firſt points of the ſecants to that diſtance; then take the diſtance between 49 and 49 on the line of ſecants, and apply from A towards C, and from B towards D. Next, keeping the ſector in the ſame poſition, transfer the diſtance between 50 and 50 in the line of ſecants upon the meridians AC and BD, and ſo on until you come to the 53d.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the Chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the moſt authentic Charts, Maps, and Obſervations.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Abbeville	Picardy	France	Europe	50-7 N	1-54 E
Aberdeen	Aberdeenſhire	Scotland	Europe	57-4 N	1-50 W
Abo	Finland	Sweden	Europe	60-27 N	22-18 E
Acapulco	Mexico	North	America	17-10 N	101-20 W
Adriat. Sea, or Gulf of Venice	between	Italy and Turkey	Europe	Mediterranean Sea	
Achem	Sumatra	Eaſt India	Aſia	5 22 N	95-29 E
Advent. Iſle	Pacific	Ocean	Aſia	17-05 S	144-12 W
Agde	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-18 N	3-33 E
Agen	Guienne	France	Europe	44-12 N	0 40 E
St Agnes (lights)	Scillies	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	49-56 N	6-41 W
Agra	Agra	Eaſt India	Aſia	26-43 N	76-49 E
Air	Airſhire	Scotland	Europe	55-28 N	4-20 W
Adrianople	Romania	Turkey	Europe	41-42 N	26-53 E
Aix	Provence	France	Europe	43-40 N	5-40 E
Alby	Languedoc	France	Europe	43 55 N	2-13 E
Aleppo	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	35-45 N	37-25 E
Alexandretta	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	36 35 N	36-25 E
Alexandria	Lower Egypt	Turkey	Africa	31-11 N	30-21 E
Algiers	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36 49 N	2-17 E
Albany	New York	North	America	42-48 N	73-30 W
Amboyna	Amboyna Iſle	Eaſt India	Aſia	4 25 S	127-25 E
Ambryn Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	16 09 S	168-17 E
Amiens	Iſle of Fran.	France	Europe	49-52 N	2-30 E
AMSTERDAM	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-22 N	4-49 E
Amſterdam	Iſle	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	21 09 S	174-51 W
Ancona	March of Ancona	Italy	Europe	43-37 N	13 35 E
Andrews (St)	Fife	Scotland	Europe	56-15 N	2-33 E
Angra	Tercera Iſle	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	38 39 N	27-07 W
Antigua (St John's town)	Antigua Iſle	Carib. Sea	N. America	17 04 N	62-04 W
Antioch	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	36-30 N	36-40 E
Antwerp	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50-10 N	04-45 E
Archipelago	Iſland of	Greece	Europe	Mediterranean Sea	
Apæ (Iſle)	Pacific	Ocean	Aſia	16-46 S	168 32 E
Archangel	Dwina	Ruſſia	Europe	64-34 N	38-59 E
Aſcenſion Iſle		South Atlantic	Ocean	7-56 S	15 00 W
Aſtracan	Aſtracan	Ruſſia	Aſia	46 00 N	51-00 E
Athens	Achaia	Turkey	Europe	38-05 N	23-57 E
St Auguſtin	Madagaſcar	South Ind. Sea	Africa	23-35 S	42-13 E
Aurora Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	15-08 S	168-22 E

Names of Places	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Ava	Ava	East India	Asia	22-20N	95-30 E
Avignon	Provence	France	Europe	43-57N	04-53 E
Bagdad	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	33-20N	43-51 E
Baltic Sea	between	Ger. and Swed.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean	
Balasore	Orixa	East India	Asia	21-20N	86 05 E
Bay of Biscay	Coast of	France	Europe	Atlantic Ocean	
Bay of Bengal	Coast of	India	Asia	Indian Ocean	
Baldivia	Chili	South	America	40-00 S	74-00W
Balbec	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-30N	37-00 E
Barcelona	Catalonia	Spain	Europe	41-26N	02-18 E
Barbuda Isle		Atlant. Ocean	N. America	17-49N	61-55W
Basil	Basil	Switzerland	Europe	47-35N	07-34 E
Bassora	Eyraca Arabia	Turkey	Asia	30-45N	47 00 E
Bastia	Corsica	Italy	Europe	42-20N	09-40 E
Bath	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51-22N	02-16W
Belfast	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-30N	06-30W
Bender	Bassarabia	Turkey	Europe	47-00N	30-15 E
Bayeux	Normandy	France	Europe	49-16N	00-47 E
BERLIN	Brandenburg	Germany	Europe	52-32N	13-31 E
Bermudas	Bermuda Isles	Atlant. Ocean	N. America	32-25N	63-23W
Bern	Bern	Switzerland	Europe	47-00N	07-20 E
Berwick	Berwickshire	Scotland	Europe	55-48N	01-45W
Belgrade	Servia	Turkey	Europe	45-42N	20-04 E
Bencoolen	Sumatra	East India	Asia	03-30 S	102-00 E
Batavia	Java	East India	Asia	06-10 S	106-56 E
Basse Terre	Guadaloupe	Carib. Sea.	N. America	15-59N	61-54W
Bourdeaux	Guienne	France	Europe	44-50N	00-29W
Bayonne	Gascony	France	Europe	43-30N	01 25W
Borrowstounness	Linlithgowsh.	Scotland	Europe	55-56N	03-25W
Boston	Lincolnshire	England	Europe	53-10N	00-25 E
BOSTON	New England	North	America	42-25N	70-32W
Bolabola	Isle	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16-32 S	151-47W
Bologne	Picardy	France	Europe	50-43N	1-31 E
Bologna	Bolognese	Italy	Europe	44-29N	11-26 E
Bolscheriskoi	Siberia	Russia	Asia	52 54N	156-42 E
Bombay	Bombay Isle	East India	Asia	18-56N	72-43 E
Botany Bay	New S. Wales	New Holland	Pa. Ocean	34 00 S	151-30 E
Bridge-town	Barbadoes	Atlant. Ocean	N. Amer.	13-05N	58 03W
Bilboa	Biscay	Spain	Europe	43-26N	03 18W
Birmingham	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52-30N	01-50W
Bokharia	Usbec	Tartary	Asia	39-15N	67 00 E
Breda	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51-40N	04-40 E
Brest	Bretany	France	Europe	48-22N	04-30W
Bremen	Lower Saxony	Germany	Europe	53-25N	08-20 E
Bristol	Somersetthire	England	Europe	51 33N	02-40W
BRESLAW	Silesia	Bohemia	Europe	51-03N	17 13 E
Brussels	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50-51N	04-30 E

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Buenos Ayres	La Plata	Brasil	South America	35 00S	60-11 W
Buccoreſt	Walachia	Turkey	Europe	44 30N	26-00 E
Britiſh Sea	between	Britain & Ger.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean	
Black, or Euxine Sea	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia		
Bruges	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-16N	03-05 E
Brunſwick	Low Saxony	Germany	Europe	52-30N	10-30 E
Buda	Lower	Hungary	Europe	47 40N	19-05 E
Burlington	Jerſey	North	America	40-08N	75-00 W
Bourbon Iſle	South	Indian Ocean	Africa	20 51S	55-25 E
CAbello (Port)	Terra Firma	South	America	10-03N	67-27 W
Cadiz	Andaluſia	Spain	Europe	36-31N	6-06 W
Caen	Normandy	France	Europe	4-11N	0-16 W
Cahors	Guienne	France	Europe	44 26N	1-31 E
Cagliari	Sardinia	Italy	Europe	39 25N	9-38 E
CACHAO	Tonquin	Eaſt India	Aſia	21-30N	105-00 E
Cairo	Lower	Egypt	Africa	30 02N	31 23 E
Calais	Picardy	France	Europe	50-57N	1-55 E
Callao	Peru	South	America	12 01N	76 53 W
Calcutta	Bengal	Eaſt India	Aſia	23 34N	88-29 E
Calmar	Smaland	Sweden	Europe	56 40N	16 26 E
Cambray	Cambreſis	Netherlands	Europe	50 10N	3-18 E
Cambltown	Argyleſhire	Scotland	Europe	55-30N	5-40 W
Cambridge	Cambridgeſhire	England	Europe	-5212N	0-09 E
Cambridge	New	England	N. America	42-25N	71-05 W
Canary N E Point	Canary Iſles	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	28 13N	15-33 W
Candia	Candia Iſland	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	35-23N	25-30 E
Canſo Port	Nova Scotia	North Sea	America	45-20N	60 50 W
Cambodia	Cambodia	Eaſt India	Aſia	13-30N	105 00 E
Canterbury	Kent	England	Europe	51-16N	1-15 E
Canton	Canton	China	Aſia	23 07N	113-07 E
Carleſcroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	56-20N	15-31 E
Carthage Ruins	Tunis	Barbary	Africa	36-30N	9-00 E
Carthagena	Terra Firma	South	America	10-00N	76 00 W
Carthagena	Murcia	Spain	Europe	37 37N	1 03 W
Carliſle	Cumberland	England	Europe	54-47N	2-35 W
Cardigan	Cardiganſhire	Wales	Europe	52-10N	4 38 W
Candy	Ceylon	Indian Ocean	Aſia	7-54N	79-00 E
Caſpian Sea	Ruſſia	Tartary	Aſia		
Caſan	Caſan	Siberia	Aſia	55 43N	49-13 E
Caſſel	Heſſe Caſſel	Germany	Europe	51-19N	9-34 E
Caſtres	Languedoc	France	Europe	43-37N	2 19 E
St Catharine's Iſle	Atlantic	Ocean	South America	27-35S	49 12 W
Cavan	Cavan	Ireland	Europe	54-51N	7-18 W

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Cayenne	Cayenne Iſle	South	America	5-56N	53 06 W
Cette	Languedoc	France	Europe	45-23N	3 40 E
Challon	Burgundy	France	Europe	46-46N	4 56 E
Chandernagore	Bengal	Eaſt India	Aſia	22-51N	88-34 E
Charlton	Iſle	Hudſon's Bay	North America	52 03N	79-00W
Chartres	Orleanois	France	Europe	48-26N	1-33 E
Cherboug	Normandy	France	Europe	49-38N	1-33 W
Chriſtmas Sound	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55-21N	69-57 W
St Chriſtopher's Iſle	Carribean	Sea	N. America	17-15N	62-38 W
Civita Vecchia	Patro Di S. Petro	Italy	Europe	42-05N	11-51 E
Clerk's Iſles	Atlanti	Ocean	South America	55-05 S	34-37 W
Clermont	Auvergne	France	Europe	45-46N	3-10 E
Colmar	Alſace	France	Europe	48-04N	7-27 E
Cologne	Elect. of Cologna	Germany	Europe	50-55N	7 10 E
Cape Clear	Iriſh Sea	Ireland	Europe	51-18N	11-10 W
—— Comorin	On this ſide the Ganges	Eaſt India	Aſia	8-00N	77 00 E
— Finiſterre	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42-51N	9 30 W
— St Vincent	Algave	Portugal	Europe	37 02N	8 57 W
— of Good Hope	Hottentots	Caffraria	Africa	33-29 S	20-28 E
— Florida	Eaſt Florida	North	America	25-00N	83-30 W
— Verd		Negroland	Africa	14 45N	17-28 W
— Horn	Terra del Fuego Iſland	South	America	55 58 S	70-00W
Cattegate	between	Swed. & Den.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean	
Ceuta	Fez	Morocco	Africa	35-04N	6-30 W
Cheſter	Cheſhire	England	Europe	53-15N	-03 W
CHARLES-TOWN	South Carolina	North	America	32-45N	79-12 W
COPENHAGEN	Zealand Iſle	Denmark	Europe	55-40N	12 40 E
CONSTANTINOPLE	Romania	Turkey	Europe	41-01N	29-00 E
Cork	Munſter	Ireland	Europe	51 53N	8 23W
Coventry	Warwickſhire	Germany	Europe	52 25N	1-25 W
Conſtance	Suabia	Turkey	Europe	47 37N	9-12 E
Corinth	Morea	England	Europe	38-15N	23-00 E
Cowes	Iſle of Wight	Poland	Europe	50 46N	1-14 W
Cracow	Little Poalnd	Germany	Europe	50-10N	19 55 E
Cremſmunſter	Arch-duchy of Auſtria		Europe	48 01N	4-12 E
Curaſſou	Curaſſou Iſle	West India	America	11-56N	68-20 W
Caſco	Peru	South	America	14-00 S	75-06 W
Cummin	Iſle	North Pacific Ocean	Aſia	31-40N	121 09 E

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
DAmascus	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33-15N	37-20 E
Dantzic	Polish Prussia	Poland	Europe	54 22N	18 08 E
Dacca	Bengal	East India	Asia	23-30N	89-20 E
Delhi	Delhi	East India	Asia	28-20N	77-44 E
Delft	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52-06N	4 05 E
Derbent	Dagistan	Persia	Asia	42-05N	68-41 E
Dax	Gascony	France	Europe	43-42N	0-58W
Dieppe	Normandy	France	Europe	49-55N	0-59 E
Dijon	Burgundy	France	Europe	47-19N	4-57 E
Dilbingen	Suabia	Germany	Europe	48-30N	10-19 E
Dol	Bretagne,	France	Europe	48-33N	1-41W
Dominique	Wind. Islands	West India	America	15-18N	61 22W
Dover	Kent	England	Europe	51-07N	1-13 E
Dreux	Orleannois	France	Europe	48-44N	1-16 E
Derby	Derbyshire	England	Europe	52-58N	1-30W
Derry	Ulster	Ireland	Europe	54-52N	7-40W
Dieu	Guzerat	East India	Asia	21-37N	69-30 E
DRESDEN	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51-00N	13-36 E
Dundee	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56-26N	2-48W
DUBLIN	Leinster	Ireland	Europe	53-21N	6-01W
Durham	Durham	England	Europe	54-48N	1-25W
Dumbarton	Dumbartonsh.	Scotland	Europe	55-44N	4 20W
Dungeness	Kent	England	Europe	50-52N	1-04 E
Dunkirk	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51-02N	2-27 E
Dunbar	Haddington	Scotland	Europe	55-58N	2 25W
Dumfries	Dumfriesshire	Scotland	Europe	55-08N	3-05W
ENglish Channel	between	Eng. and Fran.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eastern Ocean	betw. the N.W. of N. Am. and		N. E. of Asia,	N. Pacific Ocean	
Ephesus	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38-01N	27-30 E
Eaoowe Isle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	21 24 S	174-25W
Easter Isle	Pacific	Ocean	America	27 00 S	110 00W
Edinburgh	Edinburghsh.	Scotland	Europe	55-50N	2 52W
Edystone	Eng. Channel	England	Europe	50-08N	4-19W
Enebrun	Dauphine	France	Europe	44-34N	6 34 E
Enatum Isle	Pacific	Ocean	Asia	20-10 S	169-59 E
Elbing	Prussia	Poland	Europe	54 15N	20-06 E
Embden	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	53 25N	7 10 E
Erramanga	Isle Pacific	Ocean	Asia	18-46 S	169-23 E
Erzerum	Turcomania	Turkey	Asia	39-56N	42-05 E
Ethiopian Sea	Coast of	Guinea	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eustatius	Carib. Sea	West India	N. Amer.	17-29N	63 05W
Eyereux	Normandy	France	Europe	49 01N	1-13 E
Exeter	Devonshire	England	Europe	50 44N	3-29W
FAlmouth	Cornwall	England	Europe	50 08N	4 57W
Falkirk	Stirling	Scotland	Europe	55 58N	3-27W
Fez	Fez	Morocco	Africa	33-30N	6 00W
Ferrol	Galicia	Spain	Europe	43-30N	8-40W
Fayal Town	Azores	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	38-32N	28 36W
Fernambuco		Brasil	South America	8 00 S	34 00W

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Ferrara	Ferrareſe	Italy	Europe	44 54 N	11 41 E
Ferro (Town)	Canaries	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	27 47 N	17 40 W
Florence	Tuſcany	Italy	Europe	43 46 N	11 07 E
Flores	Azores	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	39 34 N	30 51 W
St Flour	Auvergne	France	Europe	45 01 N	3 10 E
France (Iſle of)	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20 09 S	57 33 E
Francfort on the Main	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49 55 N	8 40 E
Frawenburg	Poliſh	Pruſſia	Europe	54 22 N	20 12 E
Fuego Iſle	Cape Verd	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	14 56 N	24 23 W
Funchal	Madeira	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	32 37 N	17 01 W
Furneaux Iſle	Pacific	Ocean	Aſia	17 11 S	143 01 W
Fort St. David	Coromandel	Eaſt India	Aſia	11 59 N	79 58 E
GAP	Dauphine	France	Europe	44 33 N	6 09 E
Genes	Savoy	Italy	Europe	44 25 N	8 40 E
Geneva	Geneva	Switzerland	Europe	46 12 N	6 05 E
St. Georg. Iſle	Azores	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	38 39 N	27 55 W
GENOA	Genoa	Italy	Europe	44 25 N	8 30 E
Gibraltar	Andaluſia	Spain	Europe	36 05 N	5 17 W
St Georg. To.	Bermudas	Atlant. Ocean	N. Amer.	32 45 N	63 30 W
St. Georg. Fort	Coromandel	Eaſt India	Aſia	13 04 N	80 33 E
Ghent	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51 03 N	3 45 E
Glaſgow	Lanerkſhire	Scotland	Europe	55 40 N	4 00 W
Glouceſter	Glouceſterſh.	England	Europe	51 05 N	2 16 W
Goa	Malabar	Eaſt India	Aſia	15 31 N	73 50 E
Goat Iſle	Indian	Ocean	Aſia	13 55 N	120 07 E
Gomera Iſle	Canaries	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	28 05 N	17 03 W
Gombroon	Farſiſtan	Perſia	Aſia	27 30 N	74 20 E
Good Hope, T.	Hottentots	Caffres	Africa	33 55 S	18 28 E
Goree	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	14 40 N	17 20 W
Gottenburg	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	57 42 N	11 43 E
Gottengen	Hanover	Germany	Europe	51 31 N	9 58 E
Granville	Normandy	France	Europe	48 50 N	1 32 W
Gratioſa	Azores	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	39 02 N	27 53 W
Gratz	Stiria	Germany	Europe	47 04 N	15 29 E
Gravelines	Fr. Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50 50 N	2 13 E
Greenock	Renfrewſhire	Scotland	Europe	55 52 N	4 22 W
Gryphiſwald	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54 04 N	13 43 E
Guadaloupe	Caribean	Sea	N. Amer.	15 59 N	61 54 W
Guam	Ladrone Iſles	Eaſt India	Aſia	14 00 N	140 30 E
Gulf of Bothnia	Coaſt of	Sweden	Europe	Baltic Sea	
— of Findland	between	Swed. & Ruſſia	Europe	Baltic Sea	
— of Venice	between	Italy & Turk.	Europe	Mediterranean Sea	
— of Ormus	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia	Indian Ocean	
— of Perſia	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia	Indian Ocean	
— of California	between	Calif. & Mexico	N. Amer.	Pacific Ocean	
— of St Law	Coaſt of	New Scotland	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean	
— of Mexico	Coaſt of	Mexico	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean	
HAGUE	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52 04 N	4 22 E
Hamburg	Holſtein	Germany	Europe	53 34 N	9 55 E
Haſtings	Suſſex	England	Europe	50 52 N	0 40 E
Halifax	Yorkſhire	England	Europe	53 45 N	1 52 W

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
HALIFAX	Nova Scotia	North	America	44 40N	63 15W
Hanover	Saxony	Germany	Europe	52 32N	9 35 E
Havannah	Cuba	Iſland	N. Amer.	23 11N	82 13W
Hav. de Grace	Normandy	France	Europe	49 29N	0 10 E
La Heeſe	D. Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51 25N	4 50 E
Helleſpont	Med. and Bl. S.	Europe and Aſia			
St Helena Ja. Town	South	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	15 55 S	5 44W
Hernoſand	W. Bothnia	Sweden	Europe	62 38N	17 58 E
Hervey's Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	19 17 S	158 43W
Haerlem	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52 20N	4 10 E
Hereford	Herefordſhire	England	Europe	52 06N	2 38W
Hoai Nghan	Kian-Nan	China	Aſia	33 34N	118 54 E
La Hogue C.	Normandy	France	Europe	49 44N	1 51W
Hood's Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	9 26 S	138 47W
Hoogſtraten	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51 24N	4 52 E
Howe's Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	31 30 S	159 01W
Huaheine Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	16 44 S	151 01W
Hull	Yorkſhire	England	Europe	53 45N	0 12W
Hudſon's bay	Coaſt of	Labrador	N. Amer.	N. Atlantic Ocean	
JAkutſkoi	Siberia	Ruſſia	Aſia	62 01N	129 52 E
Janeiro Rio		Braſil	S. Amer.	22 10 S	43 00W
Jazy	Moldavia	Turkey	Europe	47 10N	28 00 E
Java Head	Java Iſle	Eaſt India	Aſia	6 49 S	106 55 E
Jeddo	Japan Iſle	Eaſt India	Aſia	36 20N	139 00 E
Jeruſalem	Paleſtine	Turkey	Aſia	31 55N	35 25 E
Immer Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	19 10 S	169 51 E
Ingolſtadt	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48 45N	11 27 E
St John's To.	Antigua	Leeward Iſles	N. Amer.	17 04N	62 04 E
St John's To.	Newfoundland	North	America	47 32N	52 21W
St Joſeph's	California	Mexico	N. Amer.	23 03N	109 37W
Irraname Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	19 31 S	170 26 E
Iſlamabad	Bengal	Eaſt India	Aſia	22 20N	91 50 E
Iſle of Pines	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	22 38 S	167 43 E
ISPAHAN	Irac Agem	Perſia	Aſia	32 25N	52 55 E
Judda	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Aſia	21 29N	49 27 E
Juthia	Siam	Eaſt India	Aſia	14 18N	100 55 E
Inverneſs	Inverneſsſhire	Scotland	Europe	57 33N	4 02W
Ivica Iſle	Mediterr. Sea	Italy	Europe	38 50N	1 40 E

Iſthmus of Suez joins Africa to Aſia.
——— of Corinth joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.
——— of Darien joins North and South America.
——— of Malacca joins Malacca to Farther India, Aſia.
Iriſh Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland, Europe, Atlantic Ocean.
Indian Ocean, Coaſt of India, Aſia.

KAmtſchatka	Siberia	Ruſſia	Aſia	57 10N	163 00 E
Kedgere	Bengal	Eaſt India	Aſia	21 48N	88 55 E
Kelſo	Roxboroughſ.	Scotland	Europe	55 38N	02 12W
Kilmarnock	Airſhire	Scotland	Europe	55 38N	00 30W
Kinſale	Munſter	Ireland	Europe	51 40N	08 45W
KINGSTON	Jamaica	Weſt India	America	18 15N	76 38W

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Kiow	Ukraine	Ruſſia	Europe	50 30N	31 12 E
Kola	Lapland	Ruſſia	Europe	68 52N	33 13 E
Koningſberg	Pruſſia	Poland	Europe	54 43N	21 35 E
Lancaſter	Lancaſhire	England	Europe	54 05N	02 55 E
Levant ſea	Coaſt of	Syria	Aſia	Mediterranean Sea	
Laguna	Teneriffe	Canaries	A. Ocean	28 28N	16 13W
Landau	Alſace	France	Europe	49 11N	08 02 E
Landſcroon	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	55 52N	12 51 E
Lauſanne	Cant. of Vaud.	Switzerland	Europe	46 31N	06 50 E
Leeds	Yorkſhire	England	Europe	53 48N	01 29W
Leiceſter	Leiceſterſhire	England	Europe	52 38N	01 03W
Leipſic	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51 19N	12 25 E
Leper's Iſland	S. Pacific	Ocean	Aſia	15 23 S	168 03 E
Leſkard	Cornwall	England	Europe	50 26N	04 36W
Leſparre	Guienne	France	Europe	45 18N	00 52W
Leyden	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52 10N	04 32 E
Leith	Edinburghſh.	Scotland	Europe	55 52N	2 52W
Lahor	Lahor	Eaſt India	Aſia	32 40N	75 30 E
Linlithgow	Linlithgowſh.	Scotland	Europe	55 56N	03 30W
Lincoln	Lincolnſhire	England	Europe	53 15N	00 27W
Lima	Peru	South	America	12 01 S	76 44W
Liege	Biſh. of Liege	Netherlands	Europe	50 37N	05 40 E
Limoges	Limoges	France	Europe	45 49N	01 20 E
Lintz	Auſtria	Germany	Europe	48 16N	13 57 E
Liſle	Fren. Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50 37N	03 09 E
Liſbon	Eſtremadura	Portugal	Europe	38 42N	09 04W
Lizard Point	Cornwall	England	Europe	49 57N	05 10W
Louiſburg	C. Breton Iſle	North	America	45 53N	59 48W
Limerick	Limerick Cou.	Ireland	Europe	52 34N	08 44W
Litchfield	Staffordſhire	England	Europe	52 43N	01 04W
Loretto	Pope's Territ.	Italy	Europe	43 15N	14 15 E
LONDON	Middleſex	England	Europe	51 31N	1ſt Merid.
Londonderry	Londonderry	Ireland	Europe	50 00N	07 40W
Louveau	Siam	Eaſt India	Aſia	12 42N	100 56 E
Louvain	Auſtr. Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	50 53N	04 49 E
Lubec	Holſtein	Germany	Europe	54 00N	11 40 E
St Lucia Iſle	Windwar. Iſles	Weſt Indies	N. Amer.	13 24N	60 46W
Lunden	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	55 41N	13 26 E
Luneville	Lorrain	France	Europe	48 35N	06 35 E
Luxemburg	Luxemburg	Netherlands	Europe	49 37N	06 16 E
Lyons	Lyons	France	Europe	45 45N	04 54 E
MAcao	Canton	China	Aſia	22 12N	113 51 E
Macaſſar	Celebes Iſle	Eaſt India	Aſia	05 09 S	119 53 E
Madeira Funchal	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	32 37N	17 01W
Madras	Coromandel	Eaſt India	Aſia	13 04N	80 33 E
MADRID	New Caſtile	Spain	Europe	40 25N	03 20 E
Magdalena Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	10 25 S	138 44W
Mahon Port	Minorca	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39 50N	03 53 E
Majorca	Iſle	Mediterr. Sea	Europe	39 35N	02 34 E
Malacca	Malacca	Eaſt India	Aſia	02 12N	102 10 E

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Malines	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51 01N	04 33 E
Mallicola (Isle)	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16 15N	167 44 E
St Maloes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48 38N	01 56W
Malta Isle	Mediterranean	Sea	Africa	35 54N	14 33 E
Manilla	Luconia Philip. Isles	East India	Asia	14 36N	120 58 E
MANTUA	Mantua	Italy	Europe	45 20N	10 47 E
Maregalante Isle	Atlantic	Ocean	S. Amer.	15 55N	61 06W
Marseilles	Provence	France	Europe	43 17N	05 27 E
St Martha	St Martha	Terra Firma	America	11 26N	73 59W
St Martin's Isle	Caribean Isles	West India	America	18 04N	62 57W
Martinico Isle	Caribean Isles	West India	America	14 44N	61 16W
St Mary's Isle	Sicily Isles	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49 57N	06 38W
St Mary's To.	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	36 56N	25 24W
Maskelyne Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16 32 S	168 04 E
Mauritius	Indian	Ocean	Africa	20 09 S	57 34 E
Maurua Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16 25 S	152 37 E
Mayence	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49 54N	08 25 E
Mayo Isle	Cape Verd	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	15 10N	23 00W
Meaux	Champagne	France	Europe	48 57N	02 57 E
Medina	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	25 00N	39 33 E
Mecca	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	21 45N	41 00 E
Mediterr. sea	between	Europe and	Africa	Atlantic Ocean	
Mequinez	Fez	Barbary	Africa	34 30N	06 00 E
MESSINA	Sicily Island	Italy	Europe	38 30N	15 40 E
Mergui	Siam	East India	Asia	12 12N	98 13 E
Mexico	Mexico	North	America	19 54N	100 00W
Milford Haven	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51 45N	05 15W
Miatea Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17 52 S	148 01W
St Michael's Isle	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	37 47N	25 37W
Middleburg Isl.	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	21 20 S	174 29W
MILAN	Milanese	Italy	Europe	45 25N	09 30 E
Mocha	Arabia Felix	Arabia	Asia	13 40N	43 30 E
MODENA	Modena	Italy	Europe	44 34N	11 17 E
Montreal	Canada	North	America	45 35N	73 11W
Montpelier	Languedoc	France	Europe	43 36N	03 37 E
Montrose	Forfar	Scotland	Europe	56 34N	02 20W
Montague Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17 26 S	168 36 E
Montserrat Isle	Caribean Isles	West India	America	16 47N	62 12W
MOROCCO	Morocco	Barbary	Africa	30 32N	06 10W
Moscow	Moscow	Russia	Europe	55 45N	37 50 E
Munich	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48 09N	11 35 E
Munster	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	52 00N	07 10 E
Narva	Livonia	Russia	Europe	59 00N	27 35 E
Nanci	Lorrain	France	Europe	48 41N	06 16 E
Nanking	Kiangan	China	Asia	32 00N	118 30 E
Namur	Namur	Netherlands	Europe	50 28N	04 49 E
Nangasachi	Japan	N. Pacific Oc.	Asia	32 39N	128 51 E
Naples	Naples	Italy	Europe	40 50N	14 18 E
Nantes	Bretagne	France	Europe	47 13N	01 28W

Names of Places	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Nice	Piedmont	Italy	Europe	43 41 N	07 22 E
Newport	Rhode Iſland	North	America	41 35 N	71 06 W
Nieuport	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51 07 N	02 50 E
New York	New York	North	America	40 40 N	74 00 W
Nineveh	Curdiſtan	Turkey	Aſia	36 00 N	45 00 E
St Nich. Mole	Hiſpaniola	Weſt India	America	19 49 N	73 24 W
Newcaſtle	Northumberl.	England	Europe	55 03 N	01 24 W
Ningpo	Chekiang	China	Aſia	29 57 N	120 23 E
Norfolk Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	29 01 S	168 15 E
Noriton	Pennſylvania	North	America	40 09 N	75 18 W
North Cape	Wardhus	Lapland	Europe	71 10 N	26 02 E
Nottingham	Nottinghamſh.	England	Europe	53 00 N	01 06 W
Northampton	Northamptſh.	England	Europe	52 15 N	00 55 W
Norwich	Norfolk	England	Europe	52 40 N	01 25 E
Nuremberg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49 27 N	11 12 E
Olmutz	Moravia	Bohemia	Europe	49 30 N	16 45 E
Ochotſkoi	Siberia	Ruſſia	Aſia	59 20 N	143 17 E
Ohevahoa Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	09 40 S	138 56 W
Ohitahoo Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	09 55 S	139 01 W
Oleron Iſle	Saintonge	France	Europe	46 02 N	01 20 W
Olympia	Greece	Turkey	Europe	37 40 N	23 00 E
Olinde	Braſil	South	America	08 13 S	35 00 W
Onateayo Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	09 58 S	138 40 W
Oporto	Duoro	Portugal	Europe	41 10 N	08 22 W
Orenburg	Tartary	Ruſſia	Aſia	51 46 N	55 14 E
Orleans	Orleannois	France	Europe	47 54 N	01 59 E
Orleans (New)	Louiſiana	North	America	29 57 N	89 53 W
Orotava	Teneriffe	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	28 23 N	16 19 W
Ormus	Ormicos Iſle	Perſia	Aſia	26 50 N	57 00 E
Orſk	Tartary	Ruſſia	Aſia	51 12 N	58 37 E
Oran	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36 30 N	00 05 E
Oſnaburg Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	17 52 S	148 01 E
Oſtend	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51 13 N	03 00 E
Oxford Obſervatory	Oxfordſhire	England	Europe	51 45 N	01 10 W
St Omer's	Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	50 44 N	02 19 E
l'Orient (Port)	Bretagne	France	Europe	47 45 N	05 20 W
Pacific, or Or. Ocean	between	Aſia and	America		
Padua	Paduano	Italy	Europe	45 22 N	12 00 E
Paiſley	Renfrewſhire	Scotland	Europe	55 48 N	04 08 W
Palermo	Sicily Iſle	Italy	Europe	38 30 N	13 43 E
Palmyra	Syria	Turkey	Aſia	33 00 N	39 00 E
Panama	Darien	Terra Firma	S. Amer.	09 00 N	79 00 W
Palliſer's Iſles	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	15 38 S	146 25 W
Palma Iſle	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28 36 N	17 45 W
Palmerſton's I.	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	18 00 S	162 52 W
Paoom Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	16 30 S	168 33 E
Paris Obſervatory	Iſle of France	France	Europe	48 50 N	2 25 E
Patrixfiord	Iceland	N. Atl. Ocean	Europe	65 35 N	14 05 W

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D.M.	*Long.* D. M.
Parma	Parmaſan	Italy	Europe	44 45N	10 51 E
Patna	Bengal	Eaſt India	Aſia	25 45N	83-00 E
Pau	Bearn	France	Europe	43-15N	0-04W
St Paul's Iſle	South	Indian Ocean	Africa	37-51 S	77 53E
Pegu	Pegu	Eaſt India.	Aſia	18-03N	96-24 E
Peking	Petchi-li	China	Aſia	39-54N	116- 9E
St Peter's Fort	Martinico	Weſt India	N. Am.	14 44N	61-16 W
Pembroke	Pembrokeſhire	Wales	Europe	51-45N	4-50 W
Penzance	Cornwall	England	Europe	50 c8N	6-00W
PENSACOLA	Weſt Florida	North	America	30-22N	87 20W
Perigueux	Guienne	France	Europe	45 11N	0 48 E
Perinaldi	Genoa	Italy	Europe	43 53N	7 45 E
Perth	Perthſhire	Scotland	Europe	56-22N	3-12W
Perth-amboy	New York	North	America	40-30N	74 20W
St Peter's Iſle	North	Atlant. Ocean	America	46 46N	56-12W
Perſepolis	Irac Agem	Perſia	Aſia	30-30N	54-00 E
Petropawloſki	Kamtſchatka	Ruſſia	Aſia	53-01N	158-40 E
PETERSBURG	Ingria	Ruſſia	Europe	59-56N	30-24 E
Philadelphia	Pennſylvania	North	America	39-56N	75-09W
St Philip's Fort	Minorca	Mediter. Sea	Europe	39-50N	3 53 E
Pickerſgill Iſle	South	Atlant. Ocean	America	54-42 S	36 53W
Pico	Azores	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	38-28N	28-21W
Pines, Iſle of	N. Caledonia	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	22-38 S	167-43 E
Piſa	Tuſcany	Italy	Europe	43 43N	10 17 E
Placentia	Newfoundland Iſle	North	America	47-20N	55 00W
Plymouth	Devonſhire	England	Europe	50-22N	4-10W
Plymouth	New England	North	America	41-48N	70-25W
Pollingen	Suabia	Germany	Europe	47-48N	10 48 E
Pondicherry	Coromandel	Eaſt India	Aſia	11-41N	79-57 E
Ponoi	Lapland	Ruſſia	Europe	67-06N	36-28 E
Port Jackſon	N. S. Wales	S. Pac. Ocean		33-50 S	151-30 E
Porto Sancto Iſle	Madeira	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	32-58N	16-20W
Port Royal	Jamaica	Weſt India	America	18-00N	76-40W
Port Royal	Martinico	Weſt India	America	14-35N	61-04W
Portſmouth Town	Hampſhire	England	Europe	50 47N	01-01W
—Academy	Hampſhire	England	Europe	50 48N	01-01W
Portſmouth	New England	North	America	43-10N	70-20W
Portland Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	39 25 S	178-17 E
Portland Iſle	North	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	63-22N	18-49 W
Prague		Bohemia	Europe	50 04N	14-50 E
Prin. of Wales Fort	New N. Wales	North	America	58-47N	94-02W
Potoſi	Peru	South	America	21-00 S.	77-00W
Providence	New England	North	America	41 50N	71-21W
Preſton	Lancaſhire	England	Europe	53-45N	2-50W
Preſburg	Upper	Hungary	Europe	48-20N	17-20W
Pulo Cando Iſle	Indian Ocean	Eaſt Indies	Aſia	8 40N	107-25 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Pulo Timor Isle	Gulf of Siam	East India	Asia	3 00N	104 30 E
Pylestaart Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	22 23 S	175 36W
QUebec	Canada	North	America	46 55N	69 48W
St Quintin	Picardy	France	Europe	49 50N	3 22 E
Quito	Peru	South	America	1 60 S	78 10W
Queen Charlotte's Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	10 11 S	164 35 E
RAmhead	Cornwall	England	Europe	50 18N	4 15W
Raguſa	Dalmatia	Venice	Europe	42 45N	18 25 E
Ratiſbon	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48 56N	12 05 E
Ré Isle	Aunis	France	Europe	46 14N	1 29W
Recif	Braſil	South	America	8 10 S	35 30W
Reikavich	Iceland	N. Ocean			
Rennes	Bretagne	France	Europe	48-06N	1 36W
Reſolution Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17 23 S	141 40W
Rheims	Champagne	France	Europe	49 14N	4 07 E
Rhodes	Rhode Iſland	Levant Sea	Asia	36 20N	28 00 E
Riga	Livonia	Ruſſia	Europe	55 55N	24 00 E
Rimini	Romagna	Italy	Europe	44 03N	12 39 E
Rochelle	Aunis	France	Europe	46 09N	1 04W
Rochfort	Saintonge	France	Europe	46 02N	0 53W
Rock of Liſbon	Mouth of Tagus river.	Portugal	Europe	38 45N	9 30W
Rodez	Guienne	France	Europe	44 21N	2 39 E
Rodrigues Isle	South	Indian Ocean	Africa	10 40N	63 15 E
Rome, (St Peter's)	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	41 53N	12 34 E
Rotterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	51 56N	4 33 E
Rotterdam Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	20 16N	174 25W
Rouen	Normandy	France	Europe	49 26N	1 00W
ST Auguſtin	Eaſt Florida	North	America	29 45N	81-12W
—Domingo	Carib. Sea	Weſt India	America	18 20N	70 00W
—Jago	Chili	South	America	34 30 S	72 30W
—Salvador	Braſil	South	America	12 50 S	38 30W
Saba Isle	Carib. Sea	Weſt India	America	17 39N	63 12W
Sagan	Sileſia	Germany	Europe	51 42N	15 27 E
Sall Isle	North	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	16 38N	22 51W
Salonichi	Macedonia	Turkey	Europe	40 45N	23 13 E
Salvage Iſles	North	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	30 00N	15 49W
Samana	Hiſpaniola	Weſt India	America	19-15N	69 11W
Samarcand	Uſbec	Tartary	Aſia	40 40N	69 00 E
Saliſbury	Wiltſhire	England	Europe	41 00N	1 45W
Santa Cruz	Teneriffe	Atlant. Ocean	Africa	28 27N	16 11W
Sandwich Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	17 41 S	168 38 E
Santa Fé	New Mexico	North	America	36 00N	104 00W
Savannah	Georgia	North	America	31 55N	80 20W
Saunders's Isle	South Georgia	S. Atlantic Ocean	S. America	58 00 S	26 53W
Savage Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	19 02 S	169 25W

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Sayd, or Thebes	Upper	Egypt	Africa	27 00N	32 20 E
Samaria Ruins	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	32 40N	38 00 E
St George's Channel	between	England and Ireland	Europe	Atlantic Ocean	
Scarborough	Yorkshire	England	Europe	54 18N	0 10W
Scone	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56 24N	3 10W
Schwezingen,	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49 23N	8 45 E
Sea of Asoph,	Little Tartary	Europe and	Asia		
—Marmora	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia	Black Sea	
—Ochorsk	between	Siberia, and Kamptschatka, Asia, N. Pac. Oce.			
—Yellow	betw. Eastern	Tartary, China, and Corea, N. Pacif. Ocean			
Sedan	Champagne	France	Europe	49 42N	5 02 E
Selestria		Turkey	Europe	45 00N	29 00 E
Senegal		Negroland	Africa	15 53N	16 26W
Shepherd's Isles	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	16 58 S	168 47 E
Siam	Siam	East India	Asia	14 18N	100 55 E
Si-gham-fu	Chensi	China	Asia	34 16N	108 48 E
Sisteron,	Dauphine	France	Europe	44 11N	6 01W
Shrewsbury	Shropshire	England	Europe	52 43N	2 46W
Shields (South)	Durham	England	Europe	55 02N	1 15 E
Sheerness	Kent	England	Europe	51 25N	0 50 E
Seville	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	37 15N	6 05W
Sidon	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	33 33N	36 15 E
Smyrna	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38 38N	27 40 E
Southampton	Hampshire	England	Europe	50 55N	1 25W
Sombavera Isles	Carib. Sea	West India	N. America	18 38N	63 32W
Soolo Isle	Philip. Isles	East India	Asia	5 57N	121 20 E
Spaw	Liege	Germany	Europe	50 30N	5 40 E
Sound	between	Denmark and Sweden	Europe	Baltic Sea	
Stafford	Staffordshire	England	Europe	52 50N	2 00W
Stirling	Stirlingshire	Scotland	Europe	56 10N	3 50W
Stralsund	Pomerania	Germany	Europe	54 23N	13 22 E
Strasburgh	Alsace	France	Europe	48 34N	7 46 E
Stockholm	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59 20N	18 08 E
Straumness	Iceland	N. Atl. Ocean	Europe	65 39N	24 24W
Suez	Suez	Egypt	Africa	29 50N	33 27 E
Sunderland	Durham	England	Europe	54 55N	1 10W

Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea
Straits of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean
Straits of Magellan, between Tierra del Fuego, and Patagonia, South America
Straits of La Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans
Straits of Waigats between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Virgin Gorda	Virgin Isles	West India	America	18 18 N	63 59 W
Wurtzburg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49 46 N	10 18 E
Wakefield	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53 41 N	1 28 W
Pr. of Wales Fort	New N. Wales	North	America	58 47 N	94 02 W
Wardhus	Norwegian Lapland	Lapland	Europe	70 22 N	31 11 E
Warsaw	Massovia	Poland	Europe	52 14 N	21 05 E
Westman Isles	North	Atlan Ocean	Europe	63 20 N	20 22 W
Whitsuntide Isle	South	Pacific Ocean	Asia	15 44 S	168 25 E
Warwick	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52 18 N	1 32 W
Waterford,	Munster	Ireland	Europe	52 12 N	7 16 W
Whitehaven	Cumberland	England	Europe	54 38 N	3 36 W
Williamsburg	Virginia	North	America	37 12 N	76 48 W
Wells	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51 12 N	2 40 W
Winchester	Hampshire	England	Europe	51 06 N	1 15 W
Worms	Lower Rhine	Germany	Europe	49 38 N	8 05 E
Worcester	Worcestershire	England	Europe	52 09 N	1 55 W
Willes's Isles	South Georgia	Atlan Ocean	America	54 00 S	38 24 W
Wilna	Lithuania	Poland	Europe	54 41 N	25 32 E
Wittenburg	Upper Saxony	Germany	Europe	51 49 N	12 46 E
Wologda	Wologda	Russia	Europe	59 19 N	41 50 E
Woslak		Russia	Europe	61 15 N	
Yarmouth	Norfolk	England	Europe	52 45 N	1 48 E
York	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53 59 N	1 01 W
Yorkminster	Terra del Fuego	South	America	55 26 N	70 03 W

Greenwich, Observ. Kent, England, Europe, 51° 28′ 40″ N. 0° 5′ 37″ E. of St Paul's, London.

A

NEW UNIVERSAL TABLE,

Of the preſent State of the REAL and IMAGINARY MONIES of the World.

Divided into four Parts, viz.

EUROPE, AFRICA, ASIA, AND AMERICA;

Which are ſubdivided into fifty-five Parts, containing the Names of the moſt capital places, the Species whereof are inſerted, ſhewing how the Monies are reckoned by the reſpective Nations; and the Figures ſtanding againſt the Denomination of each foreign Piece is the Engliſh intrinſic Value thereof, according to the beſt Aſſays made at the Mint of the TOWER of LONDON.

EXPLANATION.

By real Money is underſtood an Effective Specie, repreſenting in itſelf the value denominated thereby, as a GUINEA, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made uſe of in keeping Accompts, ſignifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be repreſented but by ſeveral other Pieces, as a Pound Sterling, &c.

All Fractions in the Value Engliſh are parts of a Penny.

= This mark ſignifies *is, make,* or *equal to.*

Note, for all the Spaniſh, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Daniſh Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the Weſt Indies, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

SCOTLAND AND ENGLAND.

London, Briſtol, Manchester, &c.
Edinburgh, Glaſgow, Dundee, Aberdeen, &c.

N. parts of Europe.

			£.	s.	d.
A Farthing	=	—	0	0	0
2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny -	0	0	0
2 Halfpence	=	a Penny -	0	0	1
4 Pence	=	a Groat -	0	0	4
6 Pence	=	a Half Shilling -	0	0	6
12 Pence	=	a Shilling -	0	1	0
5 Shillings	=	a Crown -	0	5	0
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound Sterling -	1	0	0
21 Shillings	=	a Guinea - -	1	1	0

Northern Parts of EUROPE.

IRELAND.

Dublin, Londonderry, Cork, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Farthing	——	——	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{168}$
2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{84}$
2 Halfpence	=	* a Penny -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{42}$
6½ Pence	=	a Half Shilling -	0	0	6	
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling Iriſh -	0	0	11	$\frac{7}{40}$
13 Pence	=	a Shilling -	0	1	0	
65 Pence	=	a Crown -	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound Iriſh -	0	18	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
22¾ Shillings	=	a Guinea -	1	1	0	

FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

Oſtend, Ghent, &c. Bruſſels, Antwerp, &c.

* A Penin	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{1050}$
4 Peningens	=	an Urche -	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{420}$
8 Peningens	=	* a Grote -	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{210}$
2 Grotes	=	a Petard -	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{105}$
6 Petards	=	* a Scalin -	0	0	5	$\frac{2}{21}$
7 Petards	=	a Scalin -	0	0	6	$\frac{3}{25}$
40 Grotes	=	* a Florin -	0	1	6	
17½ Scalins	=	a Ducat -	0	9	3	
240 Grotes	=	* a Pound Flem. -	0	9	0	

HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Fluſhing, Middleburg, &c.

* Pening	=	—	0	0	0	$\frac{21}{1260}$
8 Penigens	=	* a Grote -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{40}$
2 Grotes	=	a Stiver -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{20}$
6 Stivers	=	a Scalin -	0	0	6	$\frac{2}{105}$
20 Stivers	=	a Guilder -	0	1	9	
2 Florins 10 Stivers	=	a Rix-dollar -	0	4	6	
60 Stivers	=	a Dry Guilder -	0	5	4	$\frac{3}{4}$
3 Florins 3 Stivers	=	a Silver Ducattoon	0	5	8	$\frac{45}{63}$
6 Guilders	=	* a Pound Flem. -	0	10	6	
20 Florins	=	a Gold Ducat, or Ducattoon -	1	16	0	
15 Florins	=	a Ducattoon, another ſort, called a ſovereign	0	7	0	

HAMBURG, *Lubec, Altena, Bremen, &c.*

Germany.

* A Tryling	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{1344}$
2 Trylings	=	* a Sexling	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{672}$
2 Sexlings	=	a Fening	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{336}$
12 Fenings	=	a Shilling Lub.	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{28}$
16 Shillings	=	* a Marc -	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	=	a Sletch dollar -	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
4 Marcs	=	a Silver Ducattoon	0	6	0	
120 Shillings	=	* a Pound Flem.	0	11	3	

GERMANY.

HANOVER, *Zell*, *Lunenburg*, &c.

				£.	s.	d.	
* A Fening				0	0	0	9/48
3 Fenings	=	a Dreyer	-	0	0	0	7/16
8 Fenings	=	a Marien	-	0	0	1	1/2
12 Fenings	=	a Groſh	-	0	0	1	3/4
8 Groſhen	=	a Half Gulden		0	1	2	
16 Groſhen	=	a Gulden	-	0	2	4	
24 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar		0	3	6	
32 Groſhen	=	a Double Gulden		0	4	8	
4 Guldens	=	a Ducat	-	0	9	2	

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

Leipſic, *Dreſden*, &c. *Keil*, *Wiſmar*, &c.

* An Heller				0	0	0	7/96
2 Hellers	=	a Fening		0	0	0	7/48
6 Hellers	=	a Dreyer		0	0	0	7/16
16 Hellers	=	a Marien	-	0	0	1	1/2
12 Fenings	=	a Groſh	-	0	0	1	3/4
16 Groſhen	=	a Gould	-	0	2	4	
24 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar		0	3	6	
32 Groſhen	=	a Specie Dollar		0	4	8	
4 Goulds	=	a Ducat		0	9	4	

BRANDENBURG AND POMERANIA.

Berlin, *Potſdam*, &c. *Stetin*, &c.

* A Denier				0	0	0	2/576
9 Deniers	=	a Polchen	-	0	0	0	7/96
18 Deniers	=	a Groſh	-	0	0	0	7/48
3 Polchens	=	an Abraſs		0	0	0	7/16
20 Groſhen	=	* a Marc	-	0	0	9	1/3
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin		0	1	2	
90 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar		0	3	6	
108 Groſhen	=	an Albertus		0	4	2	
8 Florins	=	a Ducat	-	0	9	4	

COLOGN, *Triers*, *Liege*, *Munich*, *Mentz*, *Munſter*, *Paderborn*, &c.

A Dute				0	0	0	9/80
3 Dutes	=	a Cruitzer		0	0	0	3/16
2 Cruitzers	=	an Albus	-	0	0	0	2/24
8 Dutes	=	a Stiver	-	0	0	0	7/120
3 Stivers	=	a Plapert		0	0	2	1/60
4 Plaperts	=	a Copſtuck		0	0	8	2/15
40 Stivers	=	a Guilder	-	0	2	4	
2 Guilders	=	a Hard Dollar		0	4	8	
2 Guilders	=	a Ducat	-	0	9	4	

Northern Parts of EUROPE.

Northern Parts of EUROPE.

GERMANY.

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.

Preſburgh, Breſlau, Prague, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Fening	—	— —	0	0	0	7/60
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer -	0	0	0	3/30
3 Fenings	=	a Groſh -	0	0	0	7/20
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	7/15
2 Cruitzers	=	a White Groſh	0	0	0	14/15
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould -	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar -	0	3	6	
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar	0	4	0	
4 Goulds	=	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

Vienna, Trieſte, &c. Blenheim, Augſburg, &c.

A Fening	—	——	0	0	0	7/60
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer -	0	0	0	7/30
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	7/15
14 Fenings	=	a Groſh -	0	0	1	9/10
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen -	0	0	1	13/15
15 Batzen	=	a Gould -	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar -	0	3	6	
2 Florins	=	a Specie-dollar	0	4	6	
60 Batzen	=	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

FRANCONIA, *Dettingen, Nuremburg, Franckfort, &c.*

A Fening	——	——	0	0	0	7/60
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	7/15
3 Cruitzers	=	a Keyſer Groſh	0	0	1	2/5
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen -	0	0	1	13/15
15 Cruitzers	=	an Ort Gold	0	0	7	
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould -	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar -	0	3	6	
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar	0	4	8	
240 Cruitzers	=	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

Warſaw, Cracow, &c. Koningſberg, Dantzic, &c.

A Shelon	——	——	0	0	0	7/45
3 Shelons	=	a Groſh -	0	0	0	7/15
5 Groſhen	=	a Couſtie -	0	0	2	1/3
3 Couſtics	=	a Tinſe -	0	0	7	
18 Groſhen	=	an Ort -	0	0	8	2/5
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin -	0	1	2	
90 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar -	0	3	6	
8 Florins	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	4	
5 Rix-dollars	=	a Fredric d'Or	0	17	0	

LIVONIA. *Revel, Narva, Riga,* &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Blacken	=	a Groſh	0	0	0
6 Blackens	=	a Groſh	0	0	0
9 Blackens	=	a Vording	0	0	0
2 Groſhen	=	a Whiten	0	0	0
6 Groſhen	=	a Marc	0	0	2
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin	0	1	2
90 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6
180 Groſhen	=	an Albertus	0	4	2
64 Whitens	=	a Copper-plate Dollar	0	5	0

DENMARK, NORWAY, AND ZEALAND.

Copenhagen, Sound, &c. *Bergen, Drontheim,* &c.

A Skilling	=		0	0	0
6 Skillings	=	a Duggen	0	0	3
16 Skillings	=	* a Marc	0	0	9
20 Skillings	=	a Rix-marc	0	0	11
24 Skillings	=	a Rix-ort	0	1	1
4 Marcs	=	a Crown	0	3	0
6 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6
11 Marcs	=	a Ducat	0	8	3
14 Marcs	=	a Hatt Ducat	0	10	6

SWEDEN, INCLUDING LAPLAND.

Stockholm, Upſal, &c. *Thorn,* &c.

* A Runſtick	=		0	0	0
2 Runſticks	=	a Stiver	0	0	0
8 Runſticks	=	a Copper Marc	0	0	1
3 Copper Marcs	=	a Silver Marc	0	0	4
4 Copper Marcs	=	a Copper Dollar	0	0	6
9 Copper Marcs	=	a Caroline	0	1	2
3 Copper Dollars	=	a Silver Dollar	0	1	6
3 Silver Dollars	=	a Rix Dollar	0	4	6
2 Rix Dollars	=	a Ducat	0	9	4

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

Moſcow, &c. *Peterſburg, Archangel,* &c.

A Poluſca	=		0	0	0
2 Poluſcas	=	a Dunuſca	0	0	0
2 Denuſcas	=	* a Copec	0	0	0
3 Copecs	=	an Altin	0	0	1
10 Copecs	=	a Grievener	0	0	5
25 Copecs	=	a Polpotin	0	1	1
50 Copecs	=	a Poltin	0	2	3
100 Copecs	=	a Ruble	0	4	6
2 Rubles	=	a Xervonitz	0	9	0

BAZIL, *Zug*, *Zurich*, &c.

				£.	s.	d.
A Rap	=	—	—	0	0	0
3 Rapen	=	a Fening	-	0	0	0
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	-	0	0	0
12 Fenings	=	* a Sol	-	0	0	1
15 Fenings	=	a Coarſe Batzen		0	0	1
18 Fenings	=	a Good Batzen		0	0	2
20 Sols	=	* a Livre	-	0	2	6
50 Cruitzers	=	a Gulden	-	0	2	6
108 Cruitzers	=	a Rix-dollar	-	0	4	6

ST GALL, *Appenſal*, &c.

An Heller		—	—	0	0	0
2 Hellers	=	a Fening	-	0	0	0
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	-	0	0	0
12 Fenings	=	* a Sol	- -	0	0	1
4 Cruitzers	=	a Coarſe Batzen		0	0	2
5 Cruitzers	=	a Good Batzen		0	0	2
20 Sols	=	* a Livre	-	0	2	6
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould	-	0	2	6
102 Cruitzers	=	a Rix-dollar	-	0	4	3

BERN. *Neufchatel*, *Lucerne*, &c.

A Denier		—	—	0	0	0
4 Deniers	=	a Cruitzer	-	0	0	0
3 Cruitzers	=	* a Sol	-	0	0	1
4 Cruitzers	=	a Plapert	-	0	0	1
5 Cruitzers	=	a Gros	-	0	0	2
6 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	-	0	0	2
20 Sols	=	* a Livre		0	2	0
75 Cruitzers	=	a Gulden	-	0	2	6
135 Cruitzers	=	a Crown	-	0	4	6

GENEVA. *Bonne*, *Pekay*, &c.

A Denier		—	—	0	0	0
2 Deniers	=	a Denier current		0	0	0
12 Deniers	=	a Small Sol	-	0	0	0
12 Deniers current	=	a Sol current	-	0	0	0
12 Small Sols	=	* a Florin	-	0	0	4
20 Sols current	=	* a Livre current		0	1	3
10½ Florins	=	a Patacoon	-	0	3	11
15¾ Florins	=	a Croiſade	-	0	5	10
24 Florins	=	a Ducat	-	0	9	0

Southern Parts of EUROPE.

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

Valenciennes, Liſle, Cambray, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Denier	=		0	0	0
12 Deniers	=	a Sol - -	0	0	0
15 Deniers	=	* a Patard -	0	0	0
15 Patards	=	* a Piette -	0	0	9
20 Sols	=	a Livre Tournois	0	0	10
20 Patards	=	* Florin -	0	1	0
60 Sols	=	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6
10½ Livres	=	a Ducat -	0	9	3
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or -	1	0	0

Dunkirk, St Quintin, St Omer's, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Denier	=		0	0	0
12 Deniers	=	a Sol - -	0	0	0
15 Deniers	=	* a Patard -	0	0	0
15 Sols	=	* a Piette -	0	0	7
20 Sols	=	* a Livre Tournois	0	0	10
3 Livres	=	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0
24 Livres	=	a Guinea -	1	1	0
30⅔ Livres	=	a Moeda -	1	7	0

Paris, Marſeilles, Lyons, &c. Bayonne, Bourdeaux, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Denier	=		0	0	0
3 Deniers	=	a Liard -	0	0	0
2 Liards	=	a Dardene -	0	0	0
12 Deniers	=	a Sol - -	0	0	0
20 Sols	=	* a Livre Tournois	0	0	10
60 Sols	=	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6
6 Livres	=	an Ecu -	0	5	0
10 Livres	=	* a Piſtole -	0	8	4
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0

PORTUGAL. *Liſbon, Oporto, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.
* A Re	=		0	0	0
10 Rez	=	a Half Vintin -	0	0	0
20 Rez	=	a Vintin -	0	0	1
5 Vintins	=	a Teſtoon -	0	0	6
4 Teſtoons	=	a Cruſade of Ex.	0	2	3
24 Vintins	=	a New Cruſade -	0	2	8
10 Teſtoons	=	* a Milre - -	0	5	7
48 Teſtoons	=	a Moidore -	1	7	0
64 Teſtoons	=	a Joaneſe -	1	16	9

Southern Parts of EUROPE.

SPAIN and CATALONIA.

Madrid, Seville, Cadiz, &c. New Plate.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Maravedie			0	0	0	$\frac{3}{4}$
2 Maravedies	=	a Quartil -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{8}$
34 Maravedies	=	a Rial -	0	0	5	$\frac{3}{4}$
2 Rials	=	a Piſtarine -	0	0	10	$\frac{3}{4}$
8 Rials	=	* a Piaſtre of Ex.	0	3	7	
10 Rials	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
375 Maravedies	=	* a Ducat of Ex.	0	4	11	$\frac{1}{2}$
32 Rials	=	* a Piſtole of Ex.	0	14	4	
36 Rials	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	9	

Gibraltar, Denia, Malaga, &c. Velon.

A Maravedie			0	0	0	$\frac{3}{4}$
2 Maravedies	=	an Ochavo -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{8}$
4 Maravedies	=	a Quartil -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{8}$
34 Maravedies	=	* a Rial Velon -	0	0	2	$\frac{7}{8}$
15 Rials	=	* a Piaſtre of Ex.	0	3	7	
512 Maravedies	=	a Piaſtre -	0	3	7	
60 Rials	=	* a Piſtole of Ex.	0	14	4	
2048 Maravedies	=	a Piſtole of Ex.	0	14	4	
70 Rials	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	9	

Barcelona, Valencia, Saragoſſa, &c. Old Plate.

* A Maravedie			0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
16 Maravedies	=	a Soldo -	0	0	3	$\frac{3}{8}$
2 Soldos	=	a Rial Old Plate	0	0	6	$\frac{3}{4}$
20 Soldos	=	* a Libra -	0	5	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
24 Soldos	=	* a Ducat -	0	6	9	
16 Soldos	=	* a Dollar -	0	4	6	
22 Soldos	=	* a Ducat -	0	6	2	$\frac{1}{4}$
21 Soldos	=	* a Ducat -	0	5	10	$\frac{7}{8}$
60 Soldos	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	9	

ITALY.

GENOA. *St. Remo, Novi, &c.*
CORSICA. *Baſtia, &c.*

A Denari			0	0	0	$\frac{3}{4}$
12 Denari	=	a Soldi -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{8}$
4 Soldi	=	a Chevalet -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire -	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{2}$
30 Soldi	=	a Teſtoon -	0	1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
5 Lires	=	a Croiſade -	0	3	7	
115 Soldi	=	* a Pezzo of Ex.	0	4	2	
6 Teſtoons	=	a Genouine -	0	6	2	
20 Lires	=	a Piſtole -	0	14	4	

SAVOY, PIEDMONT, AND SARDINIA.

Turin, Cagliari, Chamberry, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denari	——	——	0	0	0	1/16
3 Denari	=	a Quatrini -	0	0	0	3/16
12 Denari	=	a Soldi -	0	0	0	3/4
12 Soldi	=	* a Florin -	0	0	9	
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire -	0	1	3	
6 Florins	=	a Scudi -	0	4	6	
7 Florins	=	a Ducatoon -	0	5	3	
13 Lires	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	3	
16 Lires	=	a Louis d'Or -	1	0	0	

Milan, Parma, Modena, Pavia, &c.

A Denari	——	——	0	0	0	3/83
3 Denari	=	a Quatrini -	0	0	0	9/83
12 Denari	=	a Soldi -	0	0	0	36/83
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire -	0	0	8	32/83
115 Soldi	=	a Scudi current	0	4	2	1/2
117 Soldi	=	* a Scudi of Ex.	0	4	3	
6 Lires	=	a Philip -	0	4	4	1/2
22 Lires	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	0	
23 Lires	=	a Spaniſh Piſtole	0	16	9	

Florence, Leghorn, &c.

A Denari	——	——	0	0	0	5/144
4 Denari	=	a Quatrini -	0	0	0	5/36
12 Denari	=	a Soldi -	0	0	0	5/12
5 Quatrini	=	a Craca -	0	0	0	25/36
8 Cracas	=	a Quilo -	0	0	5	5/9
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire - -	0	0	8	1/3
6 Lires	=	a Piaſtre of Ex.	0	4	2	
7½ Lires	=	a Ducat -	0	5	2	1/2
22 Lires	=	a Piſtole -	0	15	6	

ROME. *Vecchia, Ancona, Civita,* &c.

A Quatrini	=	—— ——	0	0	0	1/20
5 Quatrini	=	a Bayoc -	0	0	0	3/4
8 Bayocs	=	a Julio -	0	0	6	
10 Bayocs	=	a Stampt Julio -	0	0	7	1/2
24 Bayocs	=	a Teſtoon -	0	1	6	
10 Julios	=	a Crown current	0	5	0	
12 Julios	=	* a Crown ſtampt	0	6	0	
18 Julios	=	a Chequin -	0	9	0	
31 Julios	=	a Piſtole -	0	15	6	

Southern Parts of EUROPE.

ITALY.

NAPLES. *Capua, Gaieta,* &c.

				£.	s.	d.	
A Quatrini	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{2}{5}$
3 Quatrini	=	a Grain	-	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{5}$
10 Grains	=	a Carlin	-	0	0	4	
40 Quatrini	=	a Paulo	-	0	0	5	$\frac{2}{3}$
20 Grains	=	a Tarin	-	0	0	8	
40 Grains	=	a Teſtoon		0	1	4	
100 Grains	=	a Ducat of Ex.		0	3	4	
23 Tarins	=	a Piſtole	-	0	15	4	
25 Tarins	=	a Spaniſh Piſt.		1	16	9	

SICILY AND MALTA. *Meſſina, Palermo,* &c.

A Pichila	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Pichili	=	a Grain		0	0	0	$\frac{2}{11}$
8 Pichili	=	a Ponti	-	0	0	0	$\frac{8}{10}$
10 Grains	=	a Carlin		0	0	1	$\frac{7}{12}$
20 Grains	=	a Tarin	-	0	0	3	$\frac{1}{11}$
6 Tarins	=	a Florin of Ex.		0	1	6	$\frac{6}{13}$
13 Tarins	=	a Ducat of Ex.		0	3	4	
60 Carlins	=	* an Ounce		0	7	8	$\frac{3}{12}$
2 Ounces	=	a Piſtole		0	15	4	

Ravenna, Bologna, &c.

A Quatrini	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Quatrini	=	a Bayoc		0	0	0	$\frac{3}{5}$
10 Bayocs	=	a Julio		0	0	6	
20 Bayocs	=	* a Lire	-	0	1	0	
3 Julios	=	a Teſtoon		0	1	6	
85 Bayocs	=	a Scudi of Ex.		0	4	3	
105 Bayocs	=	a Ducattoon		0	5	3	
100 Bayocs	=	a Crown	-	0	5	0	
31 Julios	=	a Piſtole		0	15	6	

VENICE. *Bergham,* &c.

A Picoli	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{30}$
12 Picoli	=	a Soldi	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
$6\frac{1}{2}$ Soldi	=	* a Gros	-	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{10}$
18 Soldi	=	a Jule	-	0	0	6	
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire	-	0	0	6	$\frac{2}{3}$
3 Jules	=	a Teſtoon		0	1	6	
124 Soldi	=	a Ducat cur.		0	3	5	$\frac{1}{3}$
24 Gros	=	* a Ducat of Ex.		0	4	4	
17 Lires	=	a Chequin		0	9	2	

S. parts of EUROPE.

TURKEY. *Morea, Cyprus, Candia,* &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Mangar	—	—	0	0	0
4 Mangars	=	an Aſper	0	0	0
3 Aſpers	≡	a Parac	0	0	1
5 Aſpers	≡	a Beſtic -	0	0	3
10 Aſpers	≡	an Oſtic -	0	0	6
20 Aſpers	≡	a Solota -	0	1	0
80 Aſpers	≡	* a Piaſtre -	0	4	0
100 Aſpers	≡	a Garagrouch	0	5	0
10 Solotas	≡	a Xeriff	0	10	0

ASIA.

ARABIA. *Mecca, Medina, Mocha,* &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Caret	—		0	0	0
5½ Carrets	≡	a Caveer -	0	0	0
7 Carrets	≡	* a Comaſhee	0	0	0
80 Carrets	≡	a Larin -	0	0	10
18 Comaſhees	≡	an Abyſs	0	1	4
60 Comaſhees	≡	* a Piaſtre	0	4	6
80 Caveers	≡	a Dollar -	0	4	6
100 Comaſheees	≡	a Sequin	0	7	6
80 Larius	≡	* a Tomond	3	7	6

PERSIA. *Ormus, Iſpahan, Gombroon,* &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Coz	—	—	0	0	0
4 Coz	=	a Biſti	0	0	1
10 Coz	≡	a Shahee -	0	0	4
20 Coz	≡	a Mamooda	0	0	8
25 Coz	≡	a Larin -	0	0	10
4 Shahees	≡	an Abaſhee	0	1	4
5 Abaſhees	≡	an Or -	0	6	8
12 Abaſhees	≡	a Bovello -	0	16	0
50 Abaſhees	≡	* a Tomond -	3	6	8

HINDOSTAN.

GUZERAT. *Cambay, Surat,* &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Pecka	—	—	0	0	0
2 Peckas	=	a Pice -	0	0	0
4 Pices	=	a Finam -	0	0	1
5 Pices	=	a Viz -	0	0	2
16 Pices	=	an Ana -	0	0	7
4 Anas	=	a Rupee -	0	2	6
2 Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown	0	5	0
24 Anas	=	a Pagoda -	0	8	9
4 Pagadas	=	a Gold Rupee	0	15	0

ASIA.

HINDOOSTAN.

MALABAR COAST.

Bombay, Napaul, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
* A Budgrook	——	—	0	0	0	27/800
2 Budgrooks	=	* a Re	0	0	0	27/400
5 Rez	=	a Pice -	0	0	0	27/80
16 Pices	=	a Laree -	0	0	5	2/3
20 Pices	=	a Quarter -	0	0	6	3/4
240 Rez	=	a Xeraphim	0	1	4	1/5
4 Quarters	=	a Rupee -	0	2	3	
14 Quarters	=	a Pagoda	0	8	0	
60 Quarters	=	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0	

Goa, Viſapour, &c.

* A Re	—	—	0	0	0	27/400
2 Rez	=	a Bazarco	0	0	0	27/200
2 Bazaracas	=	a Pecka -	0	0	0	27/100
20 Rez	=	a Vintin -	0	0	1	7/20
4 Vintins	=	a Laree -	0	0	5	2/3
3 Larees	=	a Xeraphim	0	1	4	1/5
42 Vintins	=	a Tangu -	0	4	6	
4 Tangus	=	a Paru -	0	18	0	
8 Tangus	=	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0	

COROMANDEL. *Madraſs, Maſulipatam,* &c.

A Caſh	——	—	0	0	0	5/8
5 Caſh	=	a Viz -	0	0	0	1/10
2 Viz	=	a Pice -	0	0	0	3/4
6 Pices	=	a Pical -	0	0	2	
8 Pices	=	a Fanam -	0	0	3	
10 Fanams	=	a Rupee -	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown	0	5	0	
36 Fanams	=	a Pagoda -	0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	=	a Gold Rupee	1	15	0	

BENGAL. *Calcutta, Callicut,* &c.

A Pice	—	—	0	0	0	3/5
4 Pices	=	a Fanam -	0	0	0	5/8
6 Pices	=	a Viz -	0	0	0	1/10
12 Pices	=	an Ana -	0	0	1	7/8
10 Anas	=	a Fiano -	0	1	6	3/4
16 Anas	=	a Rupee -	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	a French Ecu	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown	0	5	0	
56 Anas	=	a Pagoda -	0	8	9	

ASIA.

SIAM. *Malacca, Pegu, Sumatra, Cambodia, Borneo, Java, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Cori	—	—	0	0	0	3/20000
800 Cori	=	a Fettee -	0	0	0	3/5000
125 Fettees	=	a Sataleer -	0	0	7	1/2
250 Fettees	=	a Sooco -	0	1	3	
500 Fettees	=	a Tutal -	0	2	6	
900 Fettees	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
2 Ticals	=	a Rial -	0	5	0	
4 Soocos	=	an Ecu -	0	5	0	
8 Sataleers	=	a Crown -	0	5	0	

CHINA. *Canton, Pekin, &c.*

A Caxa	—	—	0	0	0	2/3
10 Caxa	=	a Candereen	0	0	0	4/5
10 Candereens	=	a Mace -	0	0	8	
35 Candereens	=	a Rupee -	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
70 Candereens	=	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4	1/2
7 Maces	=	an Ecu -	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	=	a Crown -	0	5	0	
10 Maces	=	a Tale -	0	6	8	

JAPAN. *Meaco, Jeddo, &c.*

A Piti	—	—	0	0	0	1/5
20 Pitis	=	a Mace -	0	0	4	
15 Maces	=	an Ounce Silver	0	4	10	1/2
20 Maces	=	a Tale -	0	6	8	
30 Maces	=	an Ingot -	0	9	8	1/2
13 Ounces Silver	=	an Ounce Gold	3	3	0	
2 Ounces Gold	=	a Japaneſe -	6	6	0	
2 Japaneſes	=	a Double -	12	12	0	
21 Ounces Gold	=	* a Cattee -	66	3	0	

AFRICA.

EGYPT. *Alexandria, Old and New Cairo, Sayde, &c.*

An Aſper	—	—	0	0	0	5/8
3 Aſpers	=	a Medin -	0	0	1	1/2
24 Medins	=	an Italian Ducat	0	3	4	
80 Aſpers	=	a Piaſtre -	0	4	0	
30 Medins	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
96 Aſpers	=	an Ecu -	0	5	0	
32 Medins	=	a Crown -	0	5	0	
200 Aſpers	=	a Sultanin -	0	10	0	
70 Medins	=	a Pargo Dollar	0	10	6	

AMERICA.

AFRICA.

BARBARY. *Tunis, Tripoli, Algiers, Una,* &c.

				£.	s.	d.	
An Aſper	—	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{5}{9}$
3 Aſpers	=	a Medin	-	0	0	1	$\frac{2}{3}$
10 Aſpers	=	a Rial Old Plate	-	0	0	6	$\frac{3}{4}$
2 Rials	=	a Double	-	0	1	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
4 Doubles	=	a Dollar	-	0	4	6	
24 Medins	=	a Silver Chequin	-	0	3	4	
30 Medins	=	a Dollar	- -	0	4	6	
180 Aſpers	=	a Zequin	- -	0	8	10	
15 Doubles	=	a Piſtole	-	0	16	9	

MOROCCO. *Mequinez, Fez, Tangier, Santa Cruz, Sallee,* &c.

A Fluce	——	——	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
24 Fluces	=	a Blanquil	-	0	0	2	
4 Blanquils	=	an Ounce	- -	0	0	8	
7 Blanquils	=	an Octavo	-	0	1	2	
14 Blanquils	=	a Quarto	- -	0	2	4	
2 Quartos	=	a Medio	-	0	4	8	
28 Blanquils	=	a Dollar	- -	0	4	6	
54 Blanquils	=	a Xequin	-	0	9	0	
100 Blanquils	=	a Piſtole	- -	0	16	9	

AMERICA.

West Indies.

ENGLISH. *Barbadoes, Jamaica,* &c.

* A Halfpenny	—	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{5}{10}\frac{7}{5}$
2 Halfpence	=	* a Penny	-	0	0	0	$\frac{5}{8}\frac{7}{0}$
$7\frac{1}{2}$ Pence	=	a Bit	- -	0	0	5	$\frac{3}{8}$
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling	-	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{0}$
75 Pence	=	a Dollar	-	0	4	6	
7 Shillings	=	a Crown	-	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound	-	0	14	3	
24 Shillings	=	a Piſtole	-	0	16	9	
30 Shillings	=	a Guinea	-	1	1	0	

FRENCH. *Martinico, St Domingo,* &c.

* A Half Sol	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{0}\frac{1}{4}\frac{7}{0}$
2 Half Sols	=	* a Sol	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{3}\frac{1}{2}\frac{7}{0}$
$7\frac{1}{2}$ Sols	=	a Half Scalin		0	0	2	$\frac{1}{1}\frac{1}{0}$
15 Sols	=	a Scalin	-	0	0	5	$\frac{7}{8}$
20 Sols	=	* a Livre	-	0	0	7	$1\frac{5}{0}$
7 Livres	=	a Dollar	-	0	4	6	
8 Livres	=	an Ecu	-	0	4	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
26 Livres	=	a Piſtole	-	0	16	9	
32 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or		1	0	0	

AMERICA. CONTINENT.

ENGLISH, *Nova Scotia, New Foundland*, &c.

				£.	s.	d.
* A Penny	——	—		0	0	1
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling	-	0	1	0
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound	-	1	0	0
2 Pounds						
3 Pounds						
4 Pounds						
5 Pounds						
6 Pounds						
7 Pounds						
8 Pounds						
9 Pounds						
10 Pounds						

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Canada, Montreal, &c.

* A Denier		
12 Deniers	=	* a Sol
20 Sols	=	* a Livre
2 Livres		
3 Livres		
4 Livres		
5 Livres		
6 Livres		
7 Livres		
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Note. For all the *Spaniſh*, *Portugueſe*, *Dutch*, and *Daniſh* dominions, either on the Continent or in the Weſt Indies, ſee the monies of the reſpective nations.

A

NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE,

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, and INVENTIONS;

ALSO,

The ÆRA, COUNTRY, and WRITINGS of LEARNED MEN.

The whole comprehending, in one View, the Analyſis or Outlines of General Hiſtory, from the Creation to the preſent Time.

Bef. Chriſt.

4 00 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
3999 The birth of Cain, the firſt who was born of a woman.
3017 Enoch, for his piety, is tranſlated into heaven.
2461 A conjunction of the planets.
2348 The old world is deſtroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.
2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's poſterity, upon which God miraculouſly confounds their language, and thus diſperſes them into different nations.
2234 The celeſtial obſervations are begun at Babylon, the city which firſt gave birth to learning and the ſciences.
2221 The Chaldæan monarchy founded by Nimrod.
2188 Miſraim, the ſon of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which laſted 1663 years, down to its conqueſt by Cambyſes, in 525 before Chriſt.
2059 Ninus, the ſon of Belus, founds the kingdom of Aſſyria, which laſted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Aſſyrians of Babylon, thoſe of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.
An eclipſe of the ſun obſerved in China.
1985 The covenant of God made with Abraham, when he leaves Haran, to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years ſojourning.
1961 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are deſtroyed for their wickedneſs, by fire from heaven.
1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.
1806 The Shepherd kings baniſhed from Egypt.
1792 Joſeph ſold in Egypt.
1779 He interpreted Pharaoh's dreams.
1772 The ſeven years of famine began.
1768 The money of Egypt collected by Joſeph.
1641 The Iſraelites oppreſſed by the Egyptians.
1637 The cruel edicts of Pharaoh againſt them.
1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God firſt high-prieſt of the Iſraelites.
1571 Moſes, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.
1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.

1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.
1555 Moſes performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Iſraelites, beſides children; which completed the 430 years of ſojourning. They miraculouſly paſs thro' the Red Sea, and come to the Deſart of Sinai, where Moſes receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments and the other laws, and ſets up the tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.
1518 The books of Moſes written.
1515 The Iſraelites entered Canaan.
1509 The land of Canaan divided by Joſhua.
1496 The council of Amphictyons eſtabliſhed.
1493 Cadmus ſuppoſed to have carried letters into Greece.
1490 Sparta built by Lacedæmon.
1485 The firſt ſhip that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
1480 Troy ſuppoſed to have been built by Dardæus.
1453 The firſt Olympic games celebrated at Olympia in Greece.
1451 The Iſraelites, after ſojourning in the wilderneſs forty years, are led under Joſhua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themſelves, after having ſubdued the natives; and the period of the ſabbatical year commences.
1446 The tribe of Benjamin almoſt deſtroyed.
1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
Minos ſaid to have reigned in Crete.
1252 The city of Tyre built.
1233 Carthage founded by the Tyrians.
1225 The Argonautic expedition.
1204 The rape of Helen by Paris.
1184 Troy taken and deſtroyed by the Greeks.
1152 Aſcanius founds Alba Longa.
1117 Three thouſand Philiſtines deſtroyed by Samſon.
1115 The mariner's compaſs ſaid to be known in China.
1051 Jeruſalem beſieged and taken by David.
1050 He defeated the Philiſtines.
1049 He ſubdued the Idumeans, Syrians, &c.
1048 The ark removed to Mount Zion.
1016 The temple begun by Solomon.
1008 The temple is ſolemnly dedicated.
979 The kingdom of Iſrael divided.
974 Seiſhak took and plundered Jeruſalem.
911 Elijah the prophet is tranſlated to heaven.
907 Benhadad defeated by Ahab.
896 Jehoſhaphat totally defeats the Philiſtines.
894 Money firſt made of gold and ſilver at Argos.
872 The art of ſculpture in marble found out.
869 Scales and meaſures invented by Phidon.
821 Nineveh taken by the Medes.
814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
787 Amos propheſied.
753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, firſt king of the Romans.
720 Samaria taken, after three years ſiege, and the kingdom of Iſrael finiſhed, by Salmanaſar, king of Aſſyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.
The firſt eclipſe of the moon on record.
658 Byzantium (now Conſtantinople), built by a colony of Athenians.
604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, ſome Phœnicians ſailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
600 Thales of Miletus travels into Egypt, conſults the prieſts of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, aſtronomy, and philoſophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipſes, gives general notions of the univerſe, and maintains that one ſupreme intelligence regulates all its motions
Maps, globes, and the ſigns of the zodiac invented by Anaximander, the ſcholar of Thales.

597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive by Nubuchadnezzar, to Babylon.
587 The city of Jeruſalem taken, after a ſiege of 18 months.
559 Cyrus, the firſt king of Perſia.
538 The kingdom of Babylon finiſhed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, iſſues an edict for the return of the Jews.
526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library firſt founded.
515 The ſecond temple at Jeruſalem is finiſhed under Darius.
509 Tarquin, the ſeventh and laſt king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two conſuls and other republican magiſtrates, till the battle of Pharſalia, being a ſpace of 461 years.
481 Xerxes the Great, king of Perſia, begins his expedition againſt Greece.
458 Ezra is ſent from Babylon to Jeruſalem with the captive Jews and the veſſels of gold and ſilver, &c. being ſeventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
430 The hiſtory of the Old Teſtament finiſhes about this time.
Malachi, the laſt of the prophets.
A plague over the whole world.
335 A temple built on mount Gerizim.
331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Perſia, and other nations of Aſia. 323, dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.
299 The firſt barbers came to Rome from Sicily.
293 The firſt ſun-dial erected at Rome.
284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs ſeventy-two interpreters to tranſlate the Old Teſtament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
283 The college and library of Alexandria founded.
269 The firſt coining of ſilver at Rome.
264 The firſt Punic war begins, and continues 23 years.
219 The art of ſurgery introduced at Rome.
218 The ſecond Punic war begins, and continues 17 years.
191 Earthquakes at Rome for 38 days.
168 Perſeus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
167 The firſt library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
150 The third Punic war commenced.
146 Carthage and Corinth razed to the ground by the Romans.
135 The hiſtory of the Apocrypha ends.
102 The Cimbri and Teutones defeated by Marius.
66 The conſpiracy of Catiline
55 Julius Cæſar makes his firſt expedition into Britain.
48 The battle of Pharſalia, between Cæſar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
The Alexandrian library, conſiſting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himſelf.
The ſolar year introduced by Cæſar.
44 Cæſar is killed in the ſenate-houſe.
41 A great famine at Rome.
31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Anthony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæſar.
The ſects of the Scribes and Phariſees commenced.
30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Anthony and Cleopatra put themſelves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman Province.
27 Octavius, by a decree of the ſenate, obtains the title of Auguſtus Cæſar, and an abſolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the firſt Roman emperor.
Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
5 The temple of Janus is ſhut by Auguſtus, as an emblem of univerſal peace;

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56 The city of Rotterdam built.
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252 A dreadful peſtilence broke out in Ethiopia, and ſpread all over the known world.
260 Valerius is taken priſoner by Sapor, king of Perſia, and flayed alive.
262 Earthquakes in Europe, Aſia, and Africa, with three days darkneſs.
274 Silk firſt brought from India; the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by ſome monks, 551; firſt worn by the clergy in England 1534.
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637 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
641 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
653 The Saracens destroyed the famous colossus at Rhodes.
664 Glass invented in England, by Benalt, a monk.
685 The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
695 Money first coined by the Arabians.
713 Saracens conquer Spain.
748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ began to be used in history.
749 The race of Abbas became caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
752 The exarchate of Ravenna abolished by Astolphus.
762 The city of Bagdad, upon the Tygris, is made the capital for the caliphs of the house of Abbas.
800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the Western Empire, gives the present names to the winds and months, and endeavours to restore learning in Europe.
826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects for being a Christian.
828 Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
835 Painters banished out of the Eastern Empire.
838 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and and both kingdoms are united by Kennet.
856 An earthquake over the greatest part of the known world.
867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
872 Clocks first used in Constantinople.
896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders (against whom he fought 56 battles by sea and land), composes his body of laws, divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings, erects county-courts, and founds the university at Oxford about this time.
915 The university of Cambridge founded.
925 Sigefroi elected the first marquis of Brandenburg.
928 The marquisate of Misena established.
936 The Saracen empire is divided into seven kingdoms.
979 Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.
991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe, by the Saracens, from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto used.
996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
999 Boleslaus first king of Poland.
1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in use; that of linen in 1170; the manufacture introduced into England at Dartford in 1588.
1005 All the old churches rebuilt about this time in a new stile of architecture.
1014 Almost all Flanders laid under water by a great storm.
1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets possession of England.
Three days rain of the colour of blood in Aquitain.
1035 The kingdoms of Castile and Arragon began.
1040 The Danes, after several engagements, with various success, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in an hostile manner.
1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
1043 The Turks become formidable, and take possession of Persia.
1054 Leo IX. the first pope that kept up an army.
1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunsinane, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.
1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
1066 The battle of Hastings fought, between Harold and William (surnamed the Bastard) duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain, after which William becomes king of England.
1070 William introduces the feudal law.
Musical notes invented.
1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany and the pope quarrel about the nomination

tion of the German biſhops. Henry, in penance, walks barefooted to the pope, towards the end of January.

1076 Juſtices of the peace firſt appointed in England.

1080 Doomſday book begun to be compiled by order of William, from a ſurvey of all the eſtates in England, and finiſhed in 1086.

The Tower of London built by ditto, to curb his Engliſh ſubjects, numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the Saxon or Engliſh language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.

1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard preſſed by the Spaniards, call to their aſſiſtance Joſeph, king of Morocco, by which the Moors get poſſeſſion of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.

1094 Margaret conquers Sweden, and annexes it to the crown of Denmark.

1096 The firſt cruſade to the Holy Land is begun under ſeveral Chriſtian princes, to drive the infidels from Jeruſalem.

1110 Edgar Atheling, the laſt of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reſide as a ſubject.

1118 The order of the Knights Templars inſtituted, to defend the ſepulchre at Jeruſalem, and to protect Chriſtian ſtrangers.

1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.

1156 The city of Moſcow founded.

1163 London Bridge, conſiſting of 19 ſmall arches, firſt built of ſtone.

1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.

The firſt king of Sardinia created by the emperor Frederic.

1172 Henry II. king of England (and firſt of the Plantagenets), takes poſſeſſion of Ireland.

1173 William king of Scotland defeated, and taken priſoner at Alnwick.

1176 England is divided by Henry into ſix circuits, and juſtice is diſpenſed by itinerant judges.

1180 Glaſs windows began to be uſed in private houſes in England.

1181 The laws of England digeſted by Glanville.

1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the ſtirrups of his ſaddle when he mounted his horſe.

1186 The great conjunction of the ſun and moon and all the planets in Libra happened in September.

1192 The battle of Aſcalon, in Judea, in which Richard king of England defeats Saladine's army, conſiſting of 300,000 combatants.

1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* firſt uſed as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.

1200 Chimnies were not known in England.

Surnames now begin to be uſed; firſt among the nobility.

1204 The empire of Trebizond founded.

1208 London incorporated, and obtained their firſt charter for electing their Lord Mayor and other magiſtrates, from king John.

1215 Magna Charta is ſigned by king John and the barons of England.

Court of Common Pleas eſtabliſhed.

1227 The Tartars, under Jenghis Khan, over-run all the Saracen empire, and carry death and deſolation wherever they march.

1230 Pruſſia ſubdued by the Teutonic knights.

1233 The inquiſition, begun in 1204, is now truſted to the Dominicans.

The houſes of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, ſtill thatched with ſtraw.

1250 Painting revived in Florence

1252 The famous aſtronomical tables are compoſed by Alonzo, king of Caſtile.

1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finiſhes the empire of the Saracens.

1263 The king of Norway invades Scotland with 160 ſail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, but are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the Weſtern Iſles.

1264 According to ſome writers, the commons of England were not ſummoned to parliament till this period.

1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.

1273 The empire of the preſent Auſtrian family begins in Germany.

1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.

1284 Ed.

1284 Edward II. born at Carnarvon, is the firſt prince of Wales.
1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland dies, and that kingdom is diſputed by twelve candidates, who ſubmit their claims to the arbitration of Edward, king of England, which lays the foundation of a long and deſolating war between both nations.
1291 The cruſades ended.
1293 There is a regular ſucceſſion of Engliſh parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
1298 The preſent Turkiſh empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.
Silver hafted knives, ſpoons, and cups a great luxury.
Tallow candles ſo great a luxury, that ſplinters of wood were uſed for lights.
Wine ſold by apothecaries as a cordial.
1302 The mariner's compaſs invented, or improved, by Giovia, of Naples.
1303 An army of Scots defeats three Engliſh armies in one day.
1307 The beginning of the Swiſs cantons.
Coal firſt uſed in England.
1378 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
1310 Lincoln's Inn Society eſtabliſhed.
The knights of St John take poſſeſſion of the Iſle of Rhodes.
1312 The order of the Knights Templars aboliſhed.
1314 The battle of Bannockburn, between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which eſtabliſhes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
The cardinals ſet fire to the conclave and ſeparate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
1319 The univerſity of Dublin founded.
1320 Gold firſt coined in Chriſtendom; 1344 ditto in England.
1336 Two Brabant weavers ſettle at York, which, ſays Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our ſubjects.
1337 The firſt comet whoſe courſe is deſcribed with an aſtronomical exactneſs.
1340 Gunpowder and guns firſt invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologn; 1346, Edward third had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Creſſy; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.
Oil painting firſt made uſe of by John Vaneck.
Copper money firſt uſed in Scotland and Ireland.
Herald's college inſtituted in England.
1344 The firſt creation to titles by patent uſed by Edward III.
1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken priſoner.
1349 The order of the Garter inſtituted in England by Edward III.
1352 The Turks firſt enter Europe.
1354 The money in Scotland till now the ſame as in England.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which king John of France and his ſon are taken priſoners by Edward the Black Prince.
1357 Coals firſt brought to London.
1358 Arms of England and France firſt quartered by Edward III.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to Engliſh, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.
John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, begins about this time to oppoſe the errors of the church of Rome with great acuteneſs and ſpirit. His followers are called Lollards.
1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands eſtabliſhed in London.
Windſor caſtle built by Edward III.
1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotſpur and the earl of Douglas, on which is founded the ballad of Chevy Chace.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amuſement.
1399 Weſtminſter Abbey and Hall rebuilt and enlarged.
Order of the Bath inſtituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed in 1725, conſiſting of 38 knights.
1410 Guildhall, London, built.
1411 The univerſity of St Andrews in Scotland founded.
1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
1428 The ſiege of Orleans, the firſt blow to the Engliſh power in France.
1430 The art of printing invented about this time.

1446 The ſea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
the Vatican library founded at Rome.
1447 Great exploits againſt the Turks, performed by Scanderbeg, prince of Epirus.
1453 Conſtantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the Eaſtern Empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Conſtantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
1454 The univerſity of Glaſgow in Scotland founded.
1457 Glaſs firſt manufactured in England.
1460 Engraving and etching in copper invented.
1477 The univerſity of Aberdeen in Scotland founded.
1483 Richard III. king of England, and laſt of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Boſworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, after a conteſt of 30 years, and the loſs of 100,000 men.
1486 Henry eſtabliſhes fifty yeomen of the guards, the firſt ſtanding army.
1489 Maps and ſea charts brought into England by Barth. Columbus.
1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek langage at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely ſubdued by Ferdinand, and become ſubjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill obſerved by the Spaniards, whoſe clergy employ the powers of the Inquiſition, with all its tortures; and, in 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the oppoſite coaſt of Africa, from whence they originally came.
1492 America firſt diſcovered by Columbus, a Genoeſe, in the ſervice of Spain.
1494 Algebra firſt known in Europe.
1495 The venereal diſeaſe makes its appearance in Europe.
1497 The Portugueſe firſt ſail to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
The continent of America diſcovered by Americus Veſputius, a Florentine, who gives it the name.
1499 North America ditto, for Henry VII. by Cabot.
1500 Painting in chario obſcuro diſcovered.
Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into ſix circles, and adds four more in 1512.
1505 Shillings firſt coined in England.
1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
1514 Cannon-bullets of ſtone ſtill in uſe.
1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt is conquered by the Turks.
1518 Magellan, in the ſervice of Spain, firſt diſcovers the ſtraits of that name in South America.
1520 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the pope.
1525 Francis I. defeated and taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia.
1528 Popery aboliſhed in Sweden
1529 The name of Proteſtant takes its riſe from the Reformed proteſting againſt the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
1534 The Reformation takes place in England, under Henry VIII.
1537 Religious houſes diſſolved by ditto.
1539 The firſt Engliſh edition of the Bible authoriſed; the preſent tranſlation finiſhed 1611.
About this time cannon began to be uſed in ſhips.
1543 Silk ſtockings firſt worn by the French king; firſt worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the ſteel frame for weaving invented by the the Rev. Mr Lee, of St John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
Pins firſt uſed in England, before which time the ladies uſed ſkewers.
1544 Good lands let in England at one ſhilling per acre.
1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
1546 Firſt law in England eſtabliſhing the intereſt of money at ten per cent.

1549 Lords lieutenants of counties inſtituted in England.
1550 Horſe guards inſtituted in England.
1553 Popery reſtored in England by queen Mary.
Servetus burnt at Geneva by Calvin the reformer.
1555 The Ruſſian company eſtabliſhed in England.
1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
1563 Knives firſt made in England.
1568 Mary queen of Scotland impriſoned by queen Elizabeth.
1569 Royal exchange firſt built.
1572 The great maſſacre of Proteſtants at Paris.
A new ſtar in Caſſiopeia obſerved by Cornelius Gemma.
1579 The Dutch ſhake off the Spaniſh yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
Engliſh Eaſt India company incorporated—eſtabliſhed 1600.
——— Turkey company incorporated.
1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the firſt Engliſh circumnavigator.
Parochial regiſters firſt appointed in England.
1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the fifth of October being counted 15.
1583 Tobacco firſt brought from Virginia into England.
1586 Potatoes firſt brought from America by Sir Francis Drake. Introduced into Ireland in 1610.
1587 Mary queen of Scots beheaded by order of Elizabeth.
1588 The Spaniſh Armada deſtroyed by Drake and other Engliſh admirals.
Henry IV. paſſes the edict of Nantz, tolerating the Proteſtants.
1589 Coaches firſt introduced into England; hackney act 1693; increaſed to 1000, 1770.
1590 Band of penſioners inſtituted in England.
Teleſcopes invented by Janſen, a ſpectacle maker in Germany.
1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
1592 Preſbyterian church government eſtabliſhed by act of parliament in Scotland.
1593 A great plague in London.
1595 The firſt diſcoveries made in Siberia by the Ruſſians.
1596 A great earthquake in Japan.
1597 Watches firſt brought into England from Germany.
1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 Queen Elizabeth (the laſt of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and firſt of the Stuarts) as her ſucceſſor, which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
1605 The gunpowder plot diſcovered at Weſtminſter, being a project of the Roman Catholics to blow up the king and both houſes of parliament.
1606 Oath of allegiance firſt adminiſtered in England.
1608 Galileo of Florence firſt diſcovers the ſatellites about the planet Saturn, by the teleſcope lately invented in Holland.
1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris, by Ravilliac, a prieſt.
Thermometers invented by Drebbel, a Dutchman.
Nine hundred thouſand Moors baniſhed from Spain.
1611 Baronets firſt created in England, by James I.
1614 Napier of Merchiſton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
1616 The firſt permanent ſettlement in Virginia.
1619 Dr W. Harvey, an Engliſhman, diſcovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood
1620 The broad ſilk manufactory, from raw ſilk, introduced into England.
The Britiſh ſettlement at Madraſs founded.
1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
1625 King James dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſon Charles I.
The iſland of Barbadoes, the firſt Britiſh ſettlement in the Weſt Indies, is planted.
1629 Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, entered Germany as head of the Proteſtant League.

1633 The

1633 The battle of Lutzen, in which he is killed.
1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
Regular poſts eſtabliſhed from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
1640 King Charles diſobliges his Scots ſubjects, on which their army, under general Leſly, enters England, and takes Newcaſtle, being encouraged by the mal-contents in England.
Independency of Portugal recovered by the Duke of Braganza.
1641 The maſſacre in Ireland, when 40,000 Engliſh Proteſtants were killed.
1642 King Charles impeaches five members who had oppoſed his arbitrary meaſures, which begins the civil war in England.
1643 Exciſe on beer, ale, &c. firſt impoſed by parliament.
Barometers invented by Torricelli.
1646 Epiſcopacy aboliſhed in England.
1647 Charles I. delivered up by the Scots commiſſioners to the Engliſh Jan. 30.
1649 He is beheaded at Whitehall, Jan. 30, aged 49.
Galileo firſt applies the pendulum to clocks.
1650 Marquis of Montroſe executed at Edinburgh, aged 37 years.
1651 The Quakers firſt appeared.
1652 The Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope eſtabliſhed.
1654 Cromwell aſſumes the protectorſhip.
The air-pump invented by Otto Guericke of Magdeburg.
1655 The Britiſh, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is ſucceeded in the Protectorſhip, by his ſon Richard.
1660 King Charles II. is reſtored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Epiſcopacy reſtored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark, being oppreſſed by the nobles, ſurrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes abſolute.
1662 The Royal Society eſtabliſhed in London, by Charles II.
1663 Pruſſia declared independent of Poland.
Carolina planted; divided into two ſeparate governments in 1728.
1664 The New Netherlands in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch, by the Britiſh.
1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 perſons.
The Magic Lanthorn invented by Kircher.
1666 The great fire of London began September 2. and continued three days, in which were deſtroyed 13,000 houſes, and 400 ſtreets.
Tea firſt uſed in England.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the Engliſh the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennſylvania, New York, and New Jerſey.
1668 ——— ditto, Aix la Chapelle.
St James's Park planted, and made a thoroughfare for public uſe by Charles II.
1669 The iſland of Crete taken by the Turks.
1670 The Engliſh Hudſon's Bay Company incorporated.
1672 Lewis XIV. over runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their ſluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.
African Company eſtabliſhed.
1676 Carolina planted by the Engliſh merchants.
1677 The Micrometer invented by Kirch.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act paſſed.
A ſtrange darkneſs at noon-day, January 12.
1680 A great comet appeared, and, from its nearneſs to our earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued viſible from Nov. 3. to March 9.
William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennſylvania.
The French firſt eſtabliſhed in the Eaſt Indies.
The anatomy of plants inveſtigated by Dr Grew.
1683 India ſtock ſold from 360 to 500 per cent.
1685 Charles II dies, aged 55, and is ſucceeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural ſon to Charles II. raiſes a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.

The edict of Nantz infamouſly revoked by Lewis XIV. and the Proteſtants cruelly perſecuted.
1686 The Newtonian philoſophy publiſhed.
1687 The palace of Verſailles, near Paris, finiſhed by Lewis XIV.
1688 The revolution in Great Britain begins, Nov. 5. king James abdicates, and retires to France, December 3.
Smyrna deſtroyed by an earthquake.
1689 King William and Queen Mary, ſon-in-law and daughter to James, are proclaimed February 16.
Viſcount Dundee ſtands out for James in Scotland, but is killed at the battle of Killycrankie, upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, diſperſe.
The land-tax paſſed in England.
The toleration act paſſed in ditto
Several biſhops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
Falkland iſlands diſcovered.
1690 The battle of Boyne, gained by William againſt James, in Ireland.
1691 The war in Ireland finiſhed by the ſurrender of Limerick to William.
1692 The Engliſh and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Ruſſel, defeat the French fleet off La-Hogue.
Dreadful earthquakes in Jamaica, Sicily, and other parts.
1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muſkets firſt uſed by the French againſt the confederates at the battle of Turin.
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
Bank of England eſtabliſhed by king William.
The firſt public lottery was drawn this year.
Maſſacre of Highlanders at Glencoe, by king William's troops.
1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp duties inſtituted in England.
1696 The peace of Ryſwick.
1697 The national debt of Great Britain firſt funded, being 5 millions; in 1714 it was 46 millions; 1747, 64 millions; 1757, 74 millions; 1762, 110 millions; 1772, 127 millions; 1784, 274 millions.
1699 The Scots ſettled a colony at the iſthmus of Darien in America, and called it Caledonia, ruined by king William's oppoſition.
1700 New ſtyle introduced among the Dutch and German Proteſtants.
The Spaniſh monarchy transferred to the houſe of Bourbon.
Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.
King James II. dies at St Germains, in the 68th year of his age.
1701 Pruſſia erected into a kingdom.
Society for the propogating of the goſpel in foreign parts eſtabliſhed.
Academy of ſciences founded at Berlin.
1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is ſucceeded by queen Anne, daughter to James II. who, with the emperor and ſtates general, renews the war againſt France and Spain
1703 The foundations of Peterſburg laid.
A dreadful tempeſt in England, November 27.
1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards, by admiral Rooke.
The French defeated at Blenheim.
The court of Exchequer inſtituted in England.
1706 The treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland, ſigned July 22.
The French defeated at Ramillies.
1707 The firſt Britiſh parliament.
The allies defeated at Almanza in Spain.
1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.
The French defeated at Oudenarde.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
The emperor ſeized the kingdom of Naples.
1709 Peter the Great, czar of Muſcovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
The French defeated at Malplaquet.
King of Pruſſia declared ſovereign of Neufchatel.

1710 Queen

1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig miniſtry for others more favourable to the intereſt of her ſuppoſed brother, the late Pretender.
The Engliſh South Sea company began.
1712 Duke of Hamilton and lord Mohun killed each other in a duel in Hyde Park.
1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Britain, and Hudſon's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were alſo confirmed to the ſaid crown by this treaty.
1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50, and is ſucceeded by George I.
Intereſt reduced to five per cent.
1715 Lewis XIV. dies, and is ſucceeded by his great-grandſon, Lewis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in Sept. under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff-muir, and the ſurrender of Preſton, both in November, when the rebels diſperſe.
1716 The Pretender married to the princeſs Sobieſki, grand-daughter of John Sobieſki, late king of Poland.
An act paſſed for ſeptennial parliaments.
Prince Eugene defeated the Turks at Peterwaradin in Hungary.
1718 Charles XII. killed at the ſiege of Frederickſhall in Norway.
1719 The Miſſiſſippi ſcheme at its height in France.
Lombe's ſilk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one-eighth of a mile; one water-wheel moves the reſt; and in 24 hours, it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine ſilk thread.
The South-Sea ſcheme in England, begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite ſunk about September 29.
1720 A peſtilence in France.
Great earthquake in China.
1724 An earthquake in Denmark.
The Proteſtants perſecuted in France.
An academy of ſciences eſtabliſhed in Peterſburg.
1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is ſucceeded by his only ſon George II.
Inoculation firſt tried on criminals with ſucceſs.
Ruſſia, formerly a dukedom, is now eſtabliſhed as an empire.
The aberration of the fixed ſtars diſcovered and accounted for by Mr Bradley.
1732 Kouli Khan uſurps the Perſian throne.
Several public-ſpirited gentlemen begin the ſettlement of Georgia, in North America.
1735 This year the number of gin-ſhops in London was 7000. In 1750 they amounted to the enormous number of 17,000, when they were aboliſhed.
1736 Captain Porteous, having ordered his ſoldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a ſmuggler, is himſelf hanged by the mob at Edinburgh.
1738 Weſtminſter-Bridge, conſiſting of fifteen arches, begun; finiſhed in 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by parliament.
1739 Letters of marque iſſued out in Britain againſt Spain, July 21, and war declared October 23.
Kouli Khan conquers the Mogul empire, and carries off a treaſure of 231 millions Sterling.
An intenſe froſt in Britain.
1743 The battle of Dettingen gained by the Engliſh and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.
1744 War declared againſt France. Commodore Anſon returns from his voyage round the world.
1745 The allies totally defeated at Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
1746 Britiſh Linen Company erected.
Lima deſtroyed by an earthquake.
1747 The allies defeated at Laffeldt.
Bergen-op-zoom taken by the French.

Kouli

Kouli Khan murdered.

1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a reſtitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all ſides.

1749 The intereſt of the Britiſh funds reduced to three per cent.
Britiſh herring fiſhery incorporated.

1750 Two ſhocks of an earthquake in England.
Academy of Sciences at Stockholm founded.

1751 Frederic, Prince of Wales, father to his preſent majeſty, died.
Antiquarian ſociety at London incorporated.

1752 The new ſtyle introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.

1753 The Britiſh Muſeum erected at Montague houſe.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, inſtituted in London.

1754 A dreadful eruption of Mount Ætna.
Great earthquake at Conſtantinople, &c.
Liſbon deſtroyed by an earthquake, Nov. 1.

1755 Quito deſtroyed by an earthquake, April 28.

1756 146 Engliſhmen are confined in the Black Hole at Calcutta, in the Eaſt Indies, by order of the nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
Marine ſociety eſtabliſhed at London.

1757 Damien attempted to aſſaſſinate the French king.

1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the Engliſh.
Balbec and Tripoli deſtroyed by an earthquake.

1760 King George II. dies October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is ſucceeded by his preſent majeſty, who, on the 22d of September, 1761, married the princeſs Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Black-Friars Bridge, conſiſting of nine arches, begun; finiſhed 1770, at the expence of 151,810l. to be diſcharged by a toll.

1762 War declared againſt Spain.
Peter III. emperor of Ruſſia, is depoſed, impriſoned, and murdered.
American Philoſophical Society eſtabliſhed at Philadelphia.
George Auguſtus Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12.

1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extenſive provinces of Canada, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, and part of Louiſiana, in North America; alſo the iſlands of Granada, St Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the Weſt Indies.

1764 The parliament granted 10,000l. to Mr Harriſon, for his diſcovery of the longitude by his time piece.

1765 His majeſty's royal charter paſſed for incorporating the ſociety of artiſts.
An act paſſed annexing the ſovereignty of the iſland of Man to the crown of Great Britain.

1766 April 21. a ſpot or macula of the ſun, more than thrice the bigneſs of our earth, paſſed the ſun's centre.
A great earthquake at Conſtantinople.

1767 Martinico almoſt ruined by an earthquake.

1768 Academy of painting eſtabliſhed in London.
The Turks impriſon the Ruſſian ambaſſador, and declare war againſt that empire.

1771 Dr Solander and Mr Banks, in his majeſty's ſhip the Endeavour, lieut. Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made ſeveral important diſcoveries in the South Seas.

1772 The king of Sweden changes the conſtitution of that kingdom.
The Pretender marries the princeſs of Stolberg, grand-daughter of Thomas, late earl of Ayleſbury.
The emperor of Germany, empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Pruſſia, ſtrip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themſelves, in violation of the moſt ſolemn treaties.

1773 Captain Phipps is ſent to explore the North Pole, but having reached the latitude of eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to diſcover a paſſage in that quarter proves fruitleſs.

The

The Jeſuits expelled from the pope's dominions, and ſuppreſſed by his bull, Aug. 25.

The Engliſh Eaſt India company having, by conqueſt or treaty, acquired very extenſive territories in the Eaſt Indies, great irregularities are committed by their ſervants abroad, upon which government interferes, and ſends out judges, &c. for the better adminiſtration of juſtice.

The war between the Ruſſians and Turks proves diſgraceful to the latter, who loſe the iſlands in the Archipelago, and by ſea are every where unſucceſsful.

1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Ruſſians and Turks.

The Britiſh parliament having paſſed an act, laying a duty of three pence per pound upon all teas imported into America; the coloniſts, conſidering this as a grievance, deny the right of the Britiſh parliament to tax them.

Deputies from the ſeveral American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the firſt general congreſs, Sep. 5.

Firſt petition of Congreſs to the king, Nov.

1775 April 19. The firſt action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials at Lexington.

May 20. Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.

June 17. A bloody action at Bunker's Hill between the royal troops and the Americans.

1776 March 17. The town of Boſton evacuated by the king's troops.

An unſucceſsful attempt, in July, made by Commodore Sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-Town, in South Carolina.

The congreſs declare the American colonies free and independent ſtates, July 4.

The Americans are driven from Long Iſland and New York, in Auguſt, with great ſlaughter; and the city of New York is afterwards taken poſſeſſion of by the king's troops.

December 25. Nine hundred Heſſians taken priſoners by Gen. Waſhington.

Torture aboliſhed in Poland.

1777 General Howe takes poſſeſſion of Philadelphia.

Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to ſurrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army, under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, October 17.

1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, February 6.

The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expence, in Weſtminſter Abbey, June 9, in conſequence of a vote of parliament.

Philadelphia evacuated by the king's troops, June 18.

The congreſs refuſe to treat with the Britiſh commiſſioners, unleſs the independence of the American colonies were firſt acknowledged, or the kings fleets and armies withdrawn from America.

Dominica taken by the French, September 7.

Pondicherry ſurrenders to the arms of Great Britain, October 17.

St Lucia taken from the French, December 28.

1779 St Vincents taken by the French.

Grenada taken by the French, July 3.

1780 Torture in courts of juſtice aboliſhed in France.

The inquiſition aboliſhed in the duke of Modena's dominions.

Admiral Rodney takes 22 ſail of Spaniſh ſhips, January 8.

He engages a Spaniſh fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St Vincent, and takes five ſhips of the line, one more driven on ſhore, and another blown up, January 16.

Charles-Town, South Carolina, ſurrenders to Sir Henry Clinton, May 4.

Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida, ſurrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.

The Proteſtant aſſociation, to the number of 50,000, go up to the Houſe of Commons,

Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act paſſed in favour of the Papiſts, June 2.

That event followed by the moſt daring riots in the city of London and Southwark, for ſeveral ſucceſſive days, in which ſome Popiſh chapels are deſtroyed, together with the priſons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, ſeveral private houſes, &c. Theſe alarming riots are at length ſuppreſſed by the interpoſition of the military, and many of the rioters tried and executed for felony.

Five Engliſh Eaſt Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips, bound for the Weſt Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, Aug. 8.

Major Andre, adjutant-general to the Britiſh army, hanged as a ſpy at Tappan, in the province of New York, October 2.

Surpriſing cold at Glaſgow.

Dreadful hurricanes in the Weſt Indies, by which great devaſtation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St Lucia, Dominica, and other iſlands, October 3. and 10.

A declaration of hoſtilities publiſhed againſt Holland, December 20.

1781 The Dutch iſland of St Euſtatia taken by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, February 3. Retaken by the French, November 27.

The iſland of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.

A bloody engagement fought between a Britiſh ſquadron under the command of admiral Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger-bank, Auguſt 5.

Earl Cornwallis, with a conſiderable Britiſh army, ſurrendered priſoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of general Waſhington and count Rochambeau, at York-town, Virginia, Oct. 19.

1782 Trincomale, on the iſland of Ceylon, taken by admiral Hughes, Jan. 11.

Minorca ſurrendered to the arms of the king of Spain, February 5.

The iſland of St Chriſtopher taken by the French, February 12.

The iſland of Nevis, in the Weſt Indies, taken by the French, Feb. 14.

Montſerrat taken by the French, February 22.

The Houſe of Commons addreſs the king againſt any farther proſecution of offenſive war on the continent of North America, March 4. and reſolve, that that Houſe would conſider all thoſe as enemies to his majeſty, and this country, who ſhould adviſe, or by any means attempt the farther proſecution of offenſive war on the continent of North America, for the purpoſe of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.

Admiral Rodney obtains a ſignal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Graſſe, near Dominica, in the Weſt Indies, April 12.

Admiral Hughes, with eleven ſhips, beat off, near the iſland of Ceylon, the French admiral Suffrein, with twelve ſhips of the line, after a ſevere engagement, in which both fleets loſt a great number of men, April 13.

The reſolution of the Houſe of Commons relating to John Wilkes, eſq; and the Middleſex election, paſſed Feb. 17. 1769, reſcinded May 3.

The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legiſlation of Ireland, received the royal aſſent June 20.

The French took and deſtroyed the forts and ſettlements in Hudſon's Bay, Aug. 24.

The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sep. 13.

Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, Oct. 8.

Proviſional articles of peace ſigned at Paris between the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, by which the Thirteen United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majeſty to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates, Nov. 30.

A general cold and backwardneſs of the ſeaſon over all Europe.

1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majeſty, and the kings of France and Spain, ſigned at Verſailles, Jan. 20.

The order of St Patrick inſtituted, Feb. 5.

Moſt violent earthquake in Calabria and Sicily, by which 40,000 people are ſuppoſed to have periſhed.

An extraordinary eruption of the Iceland volcanoes, in which the lava ſpouted up to an immenſe height for two months, viz. from the 12th of June to the 12th of Auguſt; followed by a meteor of immenſe ſize which appeared to the northward of Shetland, taking its courſe ſouth, and moving at the rate of little leſs than 1 00 miles in a minute.

Armiſtice betwixt Great Britain and Holland, Feb. 10.

Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, Sep 3.

1784 The city of London wait on the king with an addreſs of thanks for diſmiſſing the coalition miniſtry, Jan. 16.

The great ſeal ſtolen from the lord chancellor's houſe in Great Ormond-ſtreet, March 24.

The ratification of the peace with America arrived April 7.

The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.

The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee, at Weſtminſter Abbey, May 26

Proclamation for a public thankſgiving, July 2

Mr Lunardi aſcended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the firſt attempt of the kind in England, Sep 15

1783 The Britiſh ſettle a colony at Port Jackſon, New South Wales, New Holland, and begin to build a town which they name Sydney Cove, Feb. 7.

Sweden declares war againſt Ruſſia.

Great inland navigation ſaid to be diſcovered from the weſt coaſt of North America into the interior parts, by which a north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies may be found. See new diſcoveries, Vol. II. page 541.

1789 A ſurpriſing revolution in France: they raze the Baſtile to the foundation, and form a new conſtitution, by which the power of the king is greatly reduced, the nobility annihilated, and the people enjoy a great degree of liberty.

A revolution in the Netherlands, by which the other ten ſtates ſhake off the Auſtrian yoke, and erect themſelves into a new republic under the title of the Belgic United States.

1790 Great armaments preparing in the ports of Spain.

Ditto in the ports of Great Britain.

The Ruſſian fleet intirely defeated by the Turks in the Archipelago.

The Ruſſian fleet under the command of defeats the Swedes, commanded by the duke of Sundermania, with the loſs of 7 00 men, July 3.

The Swedes, commanded by the king in perſon, defeat the Ruſſians under the command of the prince of Naſſau, with the loſs of 110 officers and 2000 privates made priſoners.

In conſequence of a late decree of the National Aſſembly of France, the 14th July muſt be ever memorable in the hiſtory of that people, on account of the revolution taken notice of in the events of laſt year, viz. the deſtruction of the Baſtile and birth of French liberty. Upon this occaſion one of the moſt ſplendid and extraordinary exhibitions was preſented to the view of more than half a million of people: That of Louis XVI. and his queen, accompanied by the Preſident and Members of the National Aſſembly, in proceſſion from the Thullieres to the Champ de Mars, where a ſolemn high maſs was performed, accompanied by military muſic; immediately after which the king deſcended from a throne, and took the following fœderal oath, viz.: "I, a citizen, "king of the French, ſwear to the nation, to employ all the power de-"legated to me by the Conſtitutional Law of the State, to maintain the

"ſerm

" form of government decreed by the National Aſſembly, and accepted " by me, and to inforce the execution of the laws!"

The Preſident of the National Aſſembly then went up to the altar; the other members all ſtanding and holding up their hands, he repeated the Civic oath: " I ſwear to be faithful to the nation, the laws, and the " king; and to maintain, with all my power, the conſtitution decreed " by the National Aſſembly and accepted by the king." On the concluſion of which, every member ſaid, " That I ſwear." The Sieur de la Fayette then took the oath for himſelf, and all the other deputies of the eighty-three departments of the National Guards, who, all ſtanding, pronounced after him *je le jure*; and theſe words, with uplifted hands, were ſolemnly pronounced by every individual of the immenſe aſſembly.

Te Deum was then ſung by the multitude! What an effect? It was lofty beyond deſcription! A whole nation, with one voice, and one heart, returning thanks to God for his mercy in giving them freedom and liberty. There never was before ſuch an orcheſtra, or ſuch an audience—all were ſingers—all were hearers. Their ſhouts, in full chorus, rent the ſkies, except during the interval of the more ſolemn parts of the national paction, during which periods, a moſt ſolemn ſilence pervaded the vaſt multitude, and teſtified the intereſt which every individual felt in this great and ſolemn buſineſs; during the whole of which the utmoſt decorum, peace, and concord prevailed.

By this memorable event, the French, have by one of the moſt ſolemn deeds, ſet their ſeal to a conſtitution, the ſupporting of which will place them in the moſt reſpectable light among the nations; having thereby emancipated from abject ſlavery to true liberty and independence.

MEN

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Dates is implied the Time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flouriſhed is ſignified by* fl. *The Names in Italics, are thoſe who have given the beſt Engliſh tranſlations, excluſive of School Books.*

Bef. Ch.

907 HOMER, the firſt profane writer and Greek poet, flouriſhed. *Pope.*
Heſiod, the Greek poet, ſuppoſed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*
884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poeteſs, fl. *Fawkes.*
558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
556 Æſop, the firſt Greek fabuliſt. *Croxal.*
548 Thales, the firſt Greek aſtronomer and geographer.
497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philoſophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Addiſon.*
456 Æſchylus, the firſt Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*
435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *Weſt.*
413 Herodotus, of Greece, the firſt writer of profane hiſtory. *Littlebury.*
407 Ariſtophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White.*
Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull.*
406 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin. Potter.*
Confucius, the Chineſe philoſopher, fl.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy, in Greece.
391 Thucydides, the Greek hiſtorian. *Smith. Hobbes.*
361 Hippocrates, the Greek phyſician. *Clifton.*
Democritus, the Greek philoſopher.
359 Xenophon, ditto, and hiſtorian. *Smith, Spelman, Aſhly, Fielding.*
348 Plato, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*
336 Iſocratus, the Greek orator. *Dimſdale*
332 Ariſtotle, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*
313 Demoſthenes, the Athenian orator, poiſoned himſelf. *Leland. Francis.*
288 Theophraſtus, the Greek philoſopher, and ſcholar of Ariſtotle. *Budgel.*
285 Theocritus, the firſt Greek paſtoral poet, fl. *Fawkes.*
277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simſon.*
270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philoſophy in Greece. *Digby.*
264 Xeno, founder of the ſtoic philoſophy in ditto.
244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet.
208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*
159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.*
155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the ſtoic philoſopher.
124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman hiſtorian. *Hampton.*
54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
44 Julius Cæſar, the Roman hiſtorian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*
Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the univerſal hiſtorian, fl. *Booth.*
Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philoſopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.*
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.*
34 Salluſt, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon, Roſe.*
30 Dionyſius, of Halicarnaſſus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Spelman.*
19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden, Pitt, Warton.*
11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Grainger, Dart.*
8 Horace, the Roman lyric and ſatiric poet. *Francis.*

A. C.

17 Livy, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hay.*
19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*
20 Celſus, the Roman philoſopher and phyſician, fl. *Grieve.*
25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
33 Phædrus, the Roman fabuliſt. *Smart.*

45 Paterculus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Newcome.*
62 Perſius, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Brewſter.*
64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman, hiſtorian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby.*
Seneca, of Spain, the philoſopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Eſtrange.*
65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Rowe.*
79 Pliny, the elder, the Roman natural hiſtorian. *Holland.*
93 Joſephus, the Jewiſh hiſtorian. *Whiſton.*
94 Epictetus, the Greek ſtoic philoſopher, fl. *Mrs Carter.*
95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*
96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
99 Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian *Gordon.*
104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
116 Pliny the younger, hiſtorical letters. *Melmoth. Orrery.*
117 Suetonius, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hughes.*
119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden. Langhorn.*
128 Juvenal, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Dryden.*
140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and aſtronomer, fl.
150 Juſtin, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Turnbul.*
161 Arrian, the Roman hiſtorian and philoſopher, fl. *Rooke.*
167 Juſtin, of Samaria, the oldeſt Chriſtian author after the apoſtles.
180 Lucian, the Roman philologer. *Dimſdale, Dryden, Franklin.*
Marcus Aur. Antonius, Roman emperor and philoſopher. *Collier, Elphinſtone.*
193 Galen, the Greek philoſopher and phyſician.
200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Caſſius, of Greece, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
234 Origen, a Chriſtian father of Alexandria.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Hart.*
238 Cyprian, of Carthage, ſuffered martyrdom. *Marſhal.*
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
336 Arius, a prieſt of Alexandria, founder of the ſect of Arians.
342 Euſebius, the eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian and chronologer. *Hanmer.*
379 Baſil, biſhop of Cæſarea.
389 Gregory Nazienzen, biſhop of Conſtantinople.
397 Ambroſe, biſhop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
428 Eutropius, the Roman hiſtorian.
514 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philoſopher. *Bellamy, Preſton.*
529 Procopius, of Cæſarea, the Roman hiſtorian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illuſtrious liſt of ancient, or, as they are ſtyled, Claſſic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, thoſe two great theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a ſmall part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of thoſe fierce illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, ſubverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined ſoon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Conſtantinople alone had eſcaped the ravages of the Barbarians; and to the few literati who ſheltered themſelves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preſervation of thoſe valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility and refinement, ſucceeded worſe than Gothic ignorance—the ſuperſtition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the ſpace of a thouſand years; a period which hiſtorians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century, from which memorable æra a race of men having ſprung up in a new ſoil, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at leaſt equal the greateſt geniuſes of antiquity. Of theſe our own contrymen have the reputation of the firſt rank, with thoſe names we ſhall finiſh our liſt.

A. C.
735 Bede, a prieſt of Northumberland; hiſtory of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; hiſtory, philoſophy, and poetry.
1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St Alban's; hiſtory of England.

1292 Roger

1292 Roger Bacon, Somerſetſhire; natural philoſophy.
1308 John Fordun, a prieſt of Merns-ſhire; hiſtory of Scotland.
1400 Geoffry Chaucer, London; the father of Engliſh poetry.
1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas Moore, London; hiſtory, politics, divinity.
1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities
1563 Roger Aſcham, Yorkſhire; philology and polite literature.
1572 Reverend John Knox, the Scotch reformer; hiſtory of the ch. of Scotland.
1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonſhire; hiſtory of Scotland, Pſalms of David, politics, &c.
1598 Edmund Spenſer, London; Fairy Queen and other poems.
1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.
1616 William Shakeſpeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
1622 John Napier, of Marcheſton, Scotland; diſcoverer of logarithms.
1623 William Camden, London; hiſtory and antiquities.
1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; nat. philoſophy and literature in general.
1634 Lord Chief Juſtice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
1638 Ben Johnſton, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
1654 John Selden, Suſſex; antiquities and laws.
1657 Dr William Harvey, Kent; diſcovered the circulation of the blood.
1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miſcellaneous poetry.
1674 John Milton, London; Paradiſe loſt, regained, and various other pieces in verſe and proſe.
Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltſhire; hiſtory of the civil wars in England.
1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics
1677 Reverend Dr Iſaac Barrow, London; natural philoſophy, mathematics, and ſermons.
1680 Samuel Butler, Worceſterſhire; Hudibras, a burleſque poem.
1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, ſpeeches, letters, &c.
1688 Dr Ralph Cudworth, Somerſetſhire; intellectual ſyſtem.
1689 Dr Thomas Sydenham, Dorſetſhire; hiſtory of phyſic.
1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; eleven tragedies.
Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; apology for the Quakers.
1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; nat. and exper. philoſophy and theology.
Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee: antiquities and laws of Scotland.
1694 John Tillotſon, archbiſhop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 ſermons.
1697 Sir William Temple, London; politics, and polite literature.
1701 John Dryden, Northamptonſhire; 27 trag and com ſatiric poems, Virg.
1704 John Locke, Somerſetſhire; philoſophy, government, and theology.
1705 John Ray, Eſſex; botany, natural philoſphy, and divinity.
1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.
1713 Ant. Aſh. Cooper, earl of Shafteſbury; characteriſtics
1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edin. biſhop of Saliſbury; hiſt. biography, divinity, &c.
1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonſhire; ſeven tragedies tranſl. of Lucan's Pharſalia.
1719 Rev. John Flamſtead, Derbyſhire; mathematics and aſtronomy.
Joſeph Addiſon, Wiltſhire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.
Dr John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and aſtronomy.
1721 Matthew Prior, London; poems and politics.
1724 William Wollaſtan, Staffordſhire; religion of nature delineated.
1727 Sir Iſaac Newton, Lincolnſhire; mathemat. geometry, aſtronomy, optics.
1729 Rev. Dr Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
William Congreve, Staffordſhire; ſeven dramatic pieces.
1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
1734 Dr John Arbuthnot, Mearnsſhire; medicine, coins, politics.
1742 Dr Edmund Halley; natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, navigation.
Dr Richard Bentley, Yorkſhire; claſſical learning, criticiſm.
1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, tranſlation of Homer.
1745 Reverend Dr Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
1746 Colin M'Laurin, Argyleſhire; algebra, view of Newton's philoſophy.
1734 James Thomſon, Roxboroughſh.; ſeaſons and other poems, five tragedies.

1748 Re-

1748 Rev. Dr Iſaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philoſophy, pſalms, hymns, ſermons, &c.
Dr Francis Hutcheſon, Airſhire; ſyſtem of moral philoſophy.
1750 Rev. Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkſhire; life of Cicero, &c.
Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphyſics, and natural philoſophy.
1751 Henry St John, lord Bolingbroke, Surry; philoſophy, metaphyſics, and politics.
Dr Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.
1754 Dr Richard Mead, London; on poiſons, plague, ſmall-pox, medicine, precepts.
Henry Fielding, Somerſetſhire; Tom Jones, Joſeph Andrews, &c.
1757 Colley Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.
1761 Thomas Sherlock, biſhop of London; 69 ſermons, &c.
Benjamin Hoadley, biſhop of Wincheſter; ſermons and controverſy.
Samuel Richardſon, London; Grandiſon, Clariſſa, Pamela.
Reverend Dr John Leland Lancaſhire; anſwer to Deiſtical writers.
1765 Reverend Dr Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, three tragedies.
Robert Simſon, Glaſgow; conic ſections, Euclid, Apollonius.
1768 Reverend Lawrence Sterne; 45 ſermons, Sentimental Journey, Triſtram Shandy.
1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnſhire; harmonics and optics.
1770 Reverend Dr Jortin; life of Eraſmus, Eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, and ſermons.
Dr Mark Akenſide, Newcaſtle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonſhire; Hiſtory of England, novels, tranſl.
1771 Thomas Gray, profeſſor of modern hiſtory, Cambridge; poems.
1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Cheſterfield; letters.
George Lord Lyttleton, Worceſterſhire; Hiſtory of England.
1774 Oliver Goldſmith; poems, eſſays, and other pieces.
Zachary Pearce, biſh. of Rocheſter; annotations on the N. Teſtament, &c.
1775 Dr John Hawkſworth; eſſays.
1776 David Hume, Merſe; Hiſtory of England, and eſſays,
James Ferguſon, Aberdeenſhire; aſtronomy.
1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays, &c.
1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.
William Warburton, biſhop of Glouceſter; Divine Legation of Moſes, and various other works.
1780 Sir William Blackſtone, judge of the court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr John Fothergill, Yorkſhire; philoſophy and medicine.
James Harris, Hermes, Philological Inquiries, and Philoſ. Arrangements.
1782 Thomas Newton, biſhop of Briſtol, Litchfield; diſcourſes on the prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, bart. Roxboroughſhire; diſeaſes of the army.
Henry Home, lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticiſm, Sketches of the hiſtory of Man.
1783 Dr William Hunter, Lanerkſhire; anatomy.
1684 Dr Samuel Johnſton, Litchfield; Engliſh Dictionary, biography, eſſays, poetry. Died December 13, aged 71.
1785 William Whitehead, poet laureat; poems and plays.
1790 Dr Adam Smith; Wealth of Nations, &c.
Dr Benjamin Franklin; electricity.
Dr William Cullen; theory and practice of medicine.

FINIS.

MUSEUM BRITANNICUM

ERRATA.

VOLUME I.

Page 4, in the Table of diſtances, diameters, &c. of the ſun and planets, under the title of the earth's annual periods round the ſun, *for* 10 0 0 *read* 1 0 0.

Page 11, line ſeventh from the top. Was a line to be drawn cutting the equator at an angle of 23½ degrees, and paſſing through the parallels of all thoſe places to which the ſun is perpendicular once or twice thro' the year, it would form a circle quite round the earth, called the Ecliptic, as being, &c.

Page 116, Table, under the head Chief Towns, *for* Thorſhaven, *read* Reikavich.

Page 126, line ſecond from the top, *for* Riſhavich, *read* Reikavich.

Page 136, Table, under the head Chief Cities, *for* Riſhavich, *read* Reikavich.

Page 248, line 12, for 12,000 *read* 21,000.

VOLUME II.

Page 148, Table, in a few copies before it was diſcovered, the ſum total of Square Miles, *for* 12,000 *read* 13,071.

Page 225, line eleventh from the foot, *for*, that an entire veſſel may be lifted up at once into by them the dock, *read*, that an entire veſſel may be lifted up by them at once into the dock.

Page 529, Map of the Northern and Southern Hemiſpheres, Tract of the Reſolution, *for* 1777, 1778, 1779 and 1780, *read* 1776, 1777, 1778, 1779, and 1780.

Page 551, Coventry, Warwickſhire, Germany, *read* Coventry, Warwickſhire, England.

Ditto, Conſtance, Suabia, Turkey, *read* Conſtance, Suabia, Germany.

Ditto, Corinth, Morea, England, *read* Corinth, Morea, Turkey, Europe.

Cowes, Iſle of Wight, Poland, Europe, *read* Cowes, Iſle of Wight, England, Europe.

Cracow, Little Poalnd, Germany Europe, *read* Cracow, Little Poland, Poland, Europe.

Page 554, Hereford, Herefordſhire, England, *read* Hereford, Herefordſhire, England.

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Such as bind up the dreſſes of the various nations will pleaſe notice to place each at its reſpective kingdom.

The book-binder will pleaſe beat the book before he inſerts the maps.

Beering's Straits, Vol. II. Page 540.
St Paul's Voyage, Vol. II. Page 288.